

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 31, 1874.

The Week.

THE Louisiana Returning Board has, after two months' work, completed its labors, and made a report showing the election of three Democratic and three Republican members of Congress, a slight Republican majority in the House, and the adoption of all the constitutional amendments. The report which accompanies this return explains at considerable length the proceedings of the Board. The law requires that they shall first canvass the votes from all polling places where there has been a "fair, free, and peaceable registration and election," rejecting any polling place where there has been "any riot, tumult, acts of violence, intimidation, armed disturbances, bribery, or corrupt influences, which prevented or tended to prevent a fair, free, and peaceable vote," postponing the investigation of these doubtful cases until they have disposed of the others. On examination of the returns, however, it appeared that the election had been so loosely conducted that "at not one-tenth of the polls in the State were the forms required by law observed"; and the report declares that, "had the Board decided that anything like a strict compliance with the forms of law in holding the election" should be required, the result would have been to throw out so many of the polls "that there would have been no election in the State." The Board therefore adopted what they say was a "just and reasonable" rule, that in cases where there was any evidence of an election having been held, "although it be only a tally-sheet unsigned and not sworn to," it would consider this the official record, and compile the vote from it, in the absence of "fraud or intimidation." But where a charge of fraud or intimidation was made, the Board proceeded to receive affidavits on the subject. The Board, however, did not exclude any poll except "on satisfactory proof" that the intimidation had been sufficient to "change the result."

The affidavits taken, it seems, showed the existence of a widespread Democratic conspiracy throughout the State to prevent the negroes from voting the Republican ticket, to prevent them from holding office, to compel Republican office-holders to resign, and to drive the white Republicans out of the State; and the Board admits that as all acts of intimidation were perpetrated in favor of the Democratic party, and against the Republican party, "the polls excluded from compilation generally gave majorities in favor of the Democratic party, and their exclusion from compilation reduced the vote of that party, and in some instances had the effect of returning representatives and other officers of the opposite party." Having given the Board's version of their performances, let us now give our own. In the first week of November an election was held in Louisiana, for members of Congress and other officers. The returns of this election were sent in to the Returning Board, which on going over them found that nine-tenths of the returns were illegal and void, either on account of their not complying with the requirements of the law, or on account of bribery, intimidation, and so on. They thereupon determined to hold the election over again, and for two months past they have been engaged in "fixing" the politics of the State according to their own impression of what it ought to have been, first passing all the necessary laws and then construing them in their own way, with the above result. The Conservatives have issued a protest, declaring the report of the Board an outrage; they maintain that the election was carried by the Democrats; and what we maintain is that, on the Returning Board's showing, the election was not held by the people of Louisiana at all,

but by half a dozen gentlemen assembled in a room in New Orleans, and, as the politicians of the Tweed school say, the people were "voted" by them. Mr. Arroyo, one of the members of the Board, resigned in disgust before the result was announced.

Congress has adjourned over the holidays, the first month having been mainly occupied with the District of Columbia and Finance Bills in the Senate, and the Appropriation Bills in the House. Just before the adjournment an active dispute took place in the House over the Navy-Yard election abuses. Mr. Hale, of Maine, having charge of the Naval Appropriation Bill, began the disturbance by declaring that he "did not envy any man upon this floor who had a navy-yard in his district," and added that any such member would always find it "a source of trouble and disappointment"; on which Mr. Creamer, of New York, declared that the Navy Department "above all other departments of the Government" needed investigation, and enforced his remarks by a reference to the district represented by Mr. Gooch, of Massachusetts (including the Charlestown Navy-Yard), "where men to the number of fifteen hundred were employed two months before the election, and discharged upon the very opening of winter, immediately after the election was over." Mr. Hale defended the Department, producing statistics for the years 1873 and 1874 to show that the New York Navy-Yard had more men a year ago than during the same months this year. Mr. Archer suggested that "a year ago was the time when we supposed we should have trouble with Cuba," but Mr. Hale said that the months he had selected for comparison were earlier, and then proposed to go back to the year 1856, and see how it was "in the pure days of Democratic administration." This led to a lively discussion between Mr. Hale and Mr. Schumaker, the latter insisting that the Presidential years 1868 and 1872 must be taken, if a fair comparison was desired; Mr. Hale suggested in reply that Mr. Schumaker was getting "nervous," but admitted that, knowing as he did the utter groundlessness of the charges, he felt no wonder at it. Mr. Schumaker denied with some feeling that there was "anything nervous about him," and added that he hated to see a gentleman enjoying "a reputation for candor and fairness attempting to perpetrate a fraud upon this House." Mr. Gooch himself then appeared and substantially admitted the charge that the Navy-Yard force always increased before an election, but declared that the increase at Charlestown had been caused by the necessity of employing some men to "protect" some live-oak timber—a statement which was received with broad smiles of incredulity by the House.

The new Finance Bill seems to meet with little favor in any quarter. We have not met with a single word of general praise of it in any paper. The occasional commendation of it, on the ground that it fixed a day certain for a return to specie payments, which was at first elicited has been, in the larger number of cases within our observation, withdrawn on a closer inspection of the bill. It is generally recognized that we cannot resume without contraction; that mere pledges by Congress to return to specie payments at a remote period are of no value, considering what twistings and turnings Congress has already gone through on currency matters; that the part of the scheme relating to national banking means unmitigated inflation; that the powers given to the Secretary are enormous and alarming; that the absence of any provision for the destruction of the redeemed greenbacks is a trick looking to the establishment of another "reserve"; and that the sudden passage of the bill, without discussion in the Senate, is an unworthy attempt of the Republican managers to humbug the public, by appearing to

legislate on a subject which they really mean to shirk, and by appearing to stand up for hard money when they are really playing into the hands of the inflationists.

When one reads about a fatal "street-fight" at the South between editors or politicians, one's horror over the breach of the public peace is almost always moderated by the reflection that somebody was killed, and that though possibly "an estimable citizen in private life," as the reporters say, the public was the better of his removal. We fear this or something like this has been the state of mind of most people of the North on reading that Warmoth, the carpet-bagger and ex-governor of the State, had slain in single combat one Byerly, the White League editor of the New Orleans *Bulletin*. Byerly, it appears, had been advocating in his paper separate street-cars for colored people, and Warmoth, to his honor, been opposing the plan, also in print, which led to arrangements for a duel between him and a Mr. Jewell, one of the editors. Pending this encounter, however, Byerly assaulted Warmoth in the street with a common domestic cudgel, whereupon Warmoth drew a knife, and they both "clashed" and fell, and when they got up "it was found," says Warmoth, "that Byerly was cut, and I understand that I am accused of doing the cutting." The fact was that Byerly was "cut" in six places so deeply that he has died, and the plan of having separate cars for colored people, so important to the interests of Southern society, will perhaps now miscarry.

We are bound to say that Warmoth has borne himself better in this transaction than his successor Kellogg, the actual governor, who, when a few weeks ago a brother politician approached his carriage in what he thought was a threatening manner, drove off rapidly, firing out of the window at the foe in the crowded street as he went, happily without damage to bystanders. If a governor or ex-governor has to fight with knives or pistols in the State capital, we think he ought, for the credit of his office, to kill his man, and ought to stand his ground while doing the shooting or "the cutting." We now sincerely hope that there will be no Conservatives in New Orleans besotted enough to get up sympathetic excitement for Byerly. A dog's death is, in the estimation of the civilized world, good enough for a street-fighter, and street-fighting is a custom worthy only of savages. Southerners must somehow get this idea into their heads. They have got over the illusion that slavery was to spread over the earth; they must now get over the notion that they can be considered within the pale of civilization as long as murder is a favorite mode of avenging insults and settling differences of opinion, and murderers go unwhipped of justice. Their present state of mind on this subject is only worthy of Gaul in the sixth century.

There was another long discussion before the General Term of the Court in Brooklyn on Monday over the "bill of particulars" in the Tilton-Beecher case which had been ordered by the Court below, in terms which forbade the defendant "to produce on the trial proof of the occurrence of any specific acts of adultery at any other time and place than such as shall be set forth in the bill of particulars." The "argument" of the lawyers, which fills one side of the *Tribune*, in very fine print, was very discursive, and indeed bore a striking resemblance to the statements of the parties published last summer in the newspapers. In fact, most of the speeches appear to have been really aimed at the public out-of-doors. Mr. Shearman, who at the last argument cited the case of Susanna and the Elders, in this cited the case of Athanasius, delivered a glowing eulogy on his client, and, by way of justifying his desire to tie Tilton down to "particulars," mentioned "that one of the most respectable members of the bar in this city had told him (Shearman) that he (the member of the bar) had heard Tilton say that adultery could be com-

mitted by parties who were at the time forty miles apart," which sounds like something Susan B. Anthony might say at a suffrage tea-party. He also cited, for the same object, one of Tilton's silly articles in the *Independent* some years ago, advocating legal divorce for "adultery of the soul." In fact, thus far it cannot be said that the case has fared much better at the bar than among the newspapers. The Court has refused the bill.

The writer of the money article in the *Tribune* has for some time past by his persistent gloom excited more or less merriment even among those who generally concurred in his financial views. Not very long ago he stated that property in railroads might before long be found no more valuable than property in slaves was found to be in 1860, and he half predicted a virulent Granger movement in this State. He looked hopefully for numerous failures towards the close of the year, and was plunged in the deepest distress by the arrival of Christmas and the attempts of his fellow-Christians to enjoy it. Calling it "merry," and trying to be merry on Christmas day, roused his hearty indignation, inasmuch as he apparently felt satisfied that everybody who looked at his year's accounts must see that he was ruined. Everybody who said he had been doing a good business he apparently suspected either of mental unsoundness or of some criminal design. Now come McKillop & Sprague, however, with the annual report of their Commercial Agency, and its conclusions are worth any number of speculative groans. These are that though the first half of the year 1874 has been generally unprofitable, the second half "has, in many lines of business, been generally profitable," and "the quantity of goods gone into consumption during the last six months has been a fair average." It sets down the amount saved by economy during the year at \$400,000,000, and the number of failures in 1874 about the same as in 1873, many of them, however, belonging to the latter year. The Southern States, it says, have, on the whole, done well; in the West the speculative fever has very much diminished; and it thinks a survey of the whole field justifies "satisfaction with the status and prospects of business" for the coming year. One source of consolation remains, however, to the writer in the *Tribune*, no matter what people may say about the business outlook, and that is, that human nature has not improved to any perceptible extent since the panic, and that crime is still rife all over the continent. Lying is not uncommon, and theft is resorted to with distressing frequency, and the railroad men all continue sinful or absorbed in the pursuit of temporal riches.

Perhaps nothing in the history of William M. Tweed has been more curious than his prison life. He had hardly reached his prison when the Commissioners of Charities and Correction—three in number, appointed by a reform Mayor elected in the middle of the "uprising" caused by Tweed's robberies—who have charge of the city prisons, were charged with either ordering or permitting him a great number of indulgences. Instead of wearing the prison dress he was allowed to attire himself in the simple garb of a "Boss"; instead of occupying a cell, he had a suite of apartments assigned him, including a capacious and well-furnished dining-room and sitting-room; instead of engaging in the coarse labor of a convict, he occupied himself with what he calls his "private business," or, in other words, in the management of the money stolen by him from the city, and in this he had the assistance of a "private secretary." *Harper's Weekly* published an accurate picture of the rooms, and the whole story of Tweed's immunities and avocations was laid before the public, but it excited really comparatively little attention. At last Governor Dix interfered and called Mayor Havemeyer to account, and he called the Commissioners to account, and an enquiry was pending when the Mayor died. His successor, Mr. Vance, followed the matter up by removing the Commissioners, and it now remains to be seen how Tweed will fare under a Democratic administration. Mr. Myer Stern, however, has sent us a letter

addressed to Mayor Vance denying his charges, and challenging him to waive his privilege and stand a libel suit.

What a very little way into the Republican skin the reform has penetrated has been well illustrated by the politicians' criticisms on Mr. Vance's action after removing the Commissioners. He is only *ad interim* Mayor until the 1st of January, when his Democratic successor takes office. Accordingly, he felt it to be his duty when making any removals to allow his successor to fill the vacancies. It was his duty for two reasons—first, because it would be unjust and unfair to seize the opportunity afforded by a month's tenure of office to saddle the new Mayor with employés for whom he would be responsible but whom he had not selected; and secondly, because all hope of reform in municipal government rests on the possibility of establishing the practice of treating the offices not as the spoils of party, but as trusts to be administered by whatever party holds them for the public good. Mr. Vance's course was therefore not only just but *excellent* in the highest degree. Nevertheless, the Republican politicians denounce him fiercely, we are told, as a traitor, and think that, when he made a vacaney, he ought to have "euchred" his successor by popping one of their "workers" into it.

The November elections nowhere caused greater rejoicing in the South than in Alabama, where the whites were raised from a state of despondency to one of exceeding hopefulness. They saw that the colored vote was divided, and they had good reasons for believing that it would never again be cast solidly for any party. The Republican officials, by a cunning use of the bacon which Congress had appropriated for the relief of sufferers by overflows, did what they could in the way of bribing the blacks, but in vain. There was noticeable during the canvass an extreme indifference to the contest on the part of the colored population. So striking, indeed, was it that the whites suspected some deep-laid scheme, since in former years the negro laborers would abandon the most pressing work at the call of their political leaders. The explanation of this remarkable transformation is one which throws much light on the tendency of affairs at the South. It is one, too, offered by the negroes themselves, who say they had attended meetings and voted year after year as they had been ordered, and had seen no good come of it to themselves. They were growing steadily poorer and more deeply in debt to their white neighbors, and it was time to look after their own interests. Here we have, in fact, the key to the whole situation. The whites of Alabama are poor, destitute of capital. They have, however, intelligence and superior position. The negroes are still poorer, and are weighted down by ignorance and social demoralization. They will be longer in rising, and in the meantime will come more and more under the influence of the more prosperous whites among whom they live, and who are at present their creditors. They have already ceased to furnish a basis for the pseudo-Republican party at the South, and in future we may look to see them divided at the polls as the whites are divided—a consummation devoutly to be wished for every Southern State.

Ecclesiastical matters are now, as will be seen from our correspondent's letter, occupying the public mind in England, almost to the exclusion of all others. Little incidents are constantly occurring to fan the flame of excitement, and some of the clergy lend themselves to the work with strange fatuity. For instance, the Bishop of Lincoln a short time ago supported a minister of his own diocese in a rude, and almost certainly unlawful, refusal to allow a Wesleyan minister to place at his daughter's grave a headstone on which the bereaved father had caused the term "Rev." to be attached to his own name. This roused the Dissenters fiercely, and made all sensible people weep; but the Bishop could not get it on

of his head that he was discharging a lofty duty. Now he has again got into a collision with another of his clergy by forbidding him to invite Dr. Colenso to preach in his church. Dr. Colenso, while Bishop of Natal in Africa, propounded certain views touching the Pentateuch which were considered heretical by the other bishops of South Africa, and they tried and deposed him. He appealed, however, to the Privy Council, which pronounced the whole proceeding null and void; but then forty-three English bishops united in a request that he would resign, and the English Convocation and other Episcopal bodies approved of the action of the South African bishops. But now comes Mr. Fletcher, the minister who has invited him to preach, and says that the Bishop of Lincoln has no legal right to interfere, and that he will not regard his inhibition, and Dean Stanley supports him by inviting Dr. Colenso to preach in Westminster Abbey, following this closely by a similar invitation to Dr. Cardwell, a Scotch Presbyterian divine. These things all help to mark more distinctly the line between the English clergy who are willing to live under the law of the state and those who are not, and help to turn the minds of the laity more and more towards disestablishment as the best cure for these disturbances and dissensions.

The Emma Mine scandal grows in England under the stimulation of the Court of Chancery and the spectacle of callous indifference to the moral aspects of the affair exhibited by our own Government. Mr. Conway writes to the Cincinnati *Commercial* that it now furnishes materials for "jocular allusions" to it and our share in it at the *Opéra Comique* and elsewhere, and the interest in it is heightened by the fact that a person connected with the American Legation, whom Mr. Conway calls "a gallant colonel," has recently been operating vigorously on the London Stock Exchange, doubtless inspired by the example of his poker-playing chief. To crown all, Mr. Moran, who has been for seventeen years the secretary of the Legation, and has won everybody's respect in the place, and has been of late, in fact, almost the only unimpeachable person connected with it, has just been appointed Minister at Lisbon, the story goes, for the purpose of getting him out of the way. Mr. Conway adds some very timely observations on the influence which the present condition of that Legation is exerting in England on American credits, and the increasing suspicion with which the pecuniary ventures of a community which can have Mr. Schenck for its Minister are regarded. To put it plainly, and in language which he and General Grant will understand, it does not "pay" to keep him there.

A despatch of Prince Bismarck to Count von Arnim, which was produced on the trial of the latter, has been published, and it throws more light on the cause of the differences between them, and does more credit to Bismarck's character and cause, than anything we have yet seen. In the first place, he warns Arnim against transmitting to Berlin, at a crisis of such importance, hasty and unverified impressions about French affairs, as if they were well-established conclusions; against disregarding or trying to set aside the foreign policy resolved on by the Chancellor; makes some very sound and shrewd remarks on the difficulties which would be wrought in Germany's relations to France by the overthrow of the Thiers Republic and the establishment of a monarchy; shows the strength which such an occurrence would give to the Ultramontanes, and points out, by reference to the experience of the last forty years, that the influence of French democracy on the neighboring states depended not on the kind of government which existed in France, but on the weight and authority in Europe possessed by France. It is altogether an exceedingly able state-paper, although sharp and petulant throughout, and one sees, from the nature of the reproofs it contains, not only that Arnim's faults were of an irritating kind, but that much forbearance had been already exercised towards him.

THE LATEST "HAPPY ADJUSTMENT."

WE wish most sincerely that the financial unsoundness of Mr. Sherman's bill was the only objection to it; but the political and moral objections are just as great. It is, in the first place, a plain attempt on the part of the Republican leaders to cover up the division among them on a vital question of the day by a very transparent sham. The absence of any policy on the subject of the currency was undoubtedly one of the causes of the late defeats at the polls. This can neither be denied nor concealed. It was no answer to this charge, as we have often pointed out, that the Democrats had no policy either, because the Democrats were not in power. An opposition is not bound to have a policy on any question. It may confine itself to criticism if it pleases. The party charged with the conduct of the Government must make up its mind on such leading questions of the day as really call for legislation, and this duty the Republicans have for ten years persistently shirked, and have turned over the finances of this great commercial nation to very obscure and ignorant persons like Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson, whom the President, a soldier without experience in civil affairs, raised to power to preserve order, chose in his caprice to put in charge of the Treasury. The license, indeed, extended to Mr. Boutwell is without a parallel, considering his antecedents, in the history of constitutional government.

The bill now pending has, therefore, been evidently got up to produce both an appearance of union where no real union exists, and an appearance of doing something where nothing is done, or where something entirely different from what the country expects is contemplated. Nothing about the bill is, however, more objectionable than the *manner* of its passage in the Senate. Government by caucus has just received a very severe rebuke at the polls by the overwhelming defeat of scores of the regular party candidates. But was there ever a worse attempt to govern by caucus than the concoction of a bill which is not surpassed in importance by more than two or three pieces of legislation within the present century, which may exert a deep and lasting influence on the prosperity and business of a great nation, by a self-appointed party committee sitting in secret, and its passage through the Senate almost without debate—that is, without any complete statement of the arguments for or against it—and without giving the public time to consider it?

At the bottom of all these attempts of our Republican financiers at compromises and "happy adjustments," there is a kind of child's faith, such as George Eliot has so admirably described in the case of Hetty Sorrel, that the rules of arithmetic and the order of nature can somehow be evaded; that it cannot be that paper-money will produce the bad effects here it has produced elsewhere; that the American people will somehow, at some time or other, struggle into specie payments without any special efforts or sacrifice, and, above all, without "hurting the party." But Mr. Sherman, Mr. Dawes, and all their colleagues will find, like Hetty, that this is a miserable delusion, that the day of reckoning must come and the sacrifice be made, and that when it comes the greatness of the calamity will be in the direct ratio of the length of the period of evasion.

The bill, as we explained hastily in our last issue, is either a delusion or a snare. The attempt at specie payments is deferred for four years, which, in the way of direct delay, is the limit of possibility to any man now concerned in legislation. Even then it is to be made under conditions which will render its failure or further postponement inevitable. Political economy has long settled that no currency can be kept equal to coin while its issue exceeds the requirements of a specie basis. Neither the wit of man nor any sacrifice upon the part of the nation will avail to alter this condition. Yet the bill fails—utterly, and, considering its origin, we doubt not purposely fails—to secure such contraction as will make resumption possible. Thirty-two and a half million national bank-notes must be issued before the twenty-six million greenbacks, legalized in a former compromise, will cease from doing mischief. One

hundred and two and a half millions added to the present circulation must choke the filled channels of trade before the legal-tender notes can be brought as low as three hundred million dollars. Hero contraction will stop. The bill expressly forbids reduction below this minimum. It does not, however, prohibit the reissue of the retired notes, that point, as Mr. Sherman was not ashamed to declare, "being a question for consideration four years from now." Suspense is ruin to business men. They complain of it at this moment bitterly and justly. Yet the Senator offers them as a Christmas present four years of doubt, compared with which their present condition is certainty itself.

But perhaps anxiety is needless regarding the reissue of paper-money so unlikely to be withdrawn. For the contraction of greenbacks depends upon an increase of national bank-notes, and in what year may the larger, or even the smaller, of the above-mentioned additions to these be looked for? The Comptroller of the Currency tells us that, of \$54,000,000 circulation authorized by the Act of July 12, 1870, no more than \$37,720,411 had been absorbed up to the 1st of November last; at which date \$16,279,589 remained for distribution. Thus the increase has averaged only 8½ millions per annum. But this is not the worst of his showing for the bill. The growth has diminished rapidly and very steadily throughout the period, until it is now nothing, *or less*, as the following table will prove:

Issue from July 12, 1870, to Nov. 1, 1871.....	\$24,773,261
do. Nov. 1, 1871, to Nov. 1, 1872.....	16,220,210
do. Nov. 1, 1872, to Nov. 1, 1873.....	7,357,479
do. Nov. 1, 1873, to Nov. 1, 1874.....	3,576,297

—and, during the last year, \$7,714,550 greenbacks were deposited by banks for the withdrawal of their circulation.

Arithmetic fails us in calculating the date when the outstanding legal-tenders may be expected to approach \$300,000,000 under this bill, which, as regards the advancement of resumption by a contraction of greenbacks, is a device so transparent that it will impose upon no person who does not wish to be deceived. Its other provisions deserve notice only because of their rashness or absurdity. We are to have free banking without the restrictions of either a limited circulation or redemption in coin. Nay—and this we may call the crown of the bill—one hundred dollars in national bank-notes are to replace each eighty dollars of greenbacks withdrawn. The former, being semi-legal-tender, and requiring no reserve, will continue, until specie payments have been secured, to be as great an obstacle to resumption as the latter themselves. But paper—ever more and more paper—is what contractionists must submit to who desire the company of such currency reformers as Messrs. Morton, and Logan, and Ferry of Michigan.

The withdrawal of fractional currency and its replacement by silver coin are excellent steps in the proper place. But they must not be taken too soon. We showed in our last issue that silver coin cannot be used as money unless the premium upon gold shall fall to a point so low that there will be no profit from shipments of silver. At its present value in the markets of the world, it would certainly be driven abroad by a gold premium higher than ten per cent., while any material rise above this figure would export it quite as fast as it could be issued from the mint.

For another reason, a premature attempt to use silver as money must be deprecated. Every dollar circulated here means either a dollar of gold sent abroad, or the retention of the latter by such an advance in the premium as shall enable us to replace it with otherwise unexportable merchandise. Silver is a very important component of our exports. From New York, at which point the bullion movement for the whole country centres, there have been shipped thus far this year \$18,340,360 in silver bars. Gold and silver are not separated in the regular specie returns; but we have carefully prepared a table to show the movement in the latter during the past three years:

Net export, deducting imports, of silver from New York in 1872..	\$19,669,770
Do. do. do. in 1873..	29,688,897
Do. do. do. to date in 1874..	17,309,498

Surely these figures are sufficient to prove that resumption in silver must come to us as the companion, not the herald, of resumption in gold.

The redemption clause is quite as ill-judged and valueless as any other section of the bill. What is meant by the surplus revenue which the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to use? Is it to be a surplus in excess of the requirements of the Sinking Fund? None other could have been contemplated, but there is no possibility of its existence. For the current fiscal year the Secretary estimates that the deficiency in the Sinking Fund Account will amount to \$22,093,748. Even were the fund entirely ignored throughout the next four years, any probable surplus of revenue would be more than absorbed by purchases of silver wherewith to redeem \$40,284,952 outstanding fractional currency, in obedience to the provisions of this bill. The authority given to the Secretary "to issue, sell, and dispose of, at not less than par in coin, either of the bonds described in the Act of Congress approved July 14, 1870," will avail him but little on the 1st January, 1879, for none of the bonds authorized by this Act which he has the slightest prospect of selling at par remain to be disposed of. The Syndicate owns, and for another month will own, a call upon the whole \$122,688,550 unsold Fives. What a mockery it is to authorize the sale of 4½ per cent. bonds at not less than par, when the 5 per cent. bonds are being marketed with difficulty at one quarter per cent. below it.

But the bill we are dealing with is not an attempt wisely framed, after deliberate discussion, to accomplish resumption in the surest, easiest manner, as the safety of business requires. The purpose, the only purpose, from the very first caucus has been to enable Mr. Dawes to inform his friends in Massachusetts that this is a measure of contraction and a happy adjustment, while at the same time Mr. Morton can assure his supporters in Indiana that it is a measure of inflation and a happy adjustment. Thus statesmen labor for their own popularity and the future of a great national party. We have much pleasure, and no difficulty, in believing that their work will receive its reward.

THE MISSOURI SENATORSHIP.

THE week after the elections, when it was plain that the return of a Democratic majority in the Missouri Legislature put Mr. Schurz's seat in peril, we ventured to remark that "few things the Democrats could do to inspire confidence in themselves and in their policy, and make the way easy for them in 1876, would be more effective than sending him back again." The idea is one which of course suggested itself to almost everybody who did not look on the Democratic victory as unmixed evil, and who believed it possible for something in the nature of a reform organization to grow out of it. It suggested itself, too, as a matter of course to all those shrewd and sensible Democrats who perceived that their triumph was by no means the triumph of the Democratic party, and that it would depend on the behavior of the party during the coming two years whether it proved of any real and permanent advantage to them or not. People, of course, do not expect of the party, on the strength of a majority in one house, any striking display of legislative capacity. What they do expect of it is the display of a real spirit of reform and real comprehension of what reform means in the limited field of activity which is now open to it. In other words, they will judge by the speeches, resolutions, reports, and elections of the next two years whether it will be safe or desirable to entrust the general Government to Democratic hands at the end of that period. Moreover, the class which is looking on and making up its mind, and which turned the scale at the last election, and may turn it at the next, is not a large or stupid one. It comprises what is keenest and most watchful and independent in both parties, and is not to be deceived by buncombe speeches or resolutions, as a good many Republican politicians now know to their cost. When these gentlemen found everything else fail, they tried to retain their hold on power by telling dreadful stories of what would

happen if the Democrats came into power, and upon a great many of the Republicans these stories undoubtedly produced the desired effect. But upon the class of which we are speaking, they ceased to produce any effect, and when it determined to try the Democrats, Republican ascendancy was at an end.

Now, this class has to be satisfied as to Democratic intentions, and it will not be satisfied by fine words, but by the use Democrats make of such scraps of power as now come into their hands. For instance, it will watch with interest the kind of Speaker they elect, and the kind of committees he appoints, the kind of enquiries on which they enter, and the spirit in which they conduct them, the character of the measures they propose and support, and the kind of senators Democratic legislators send up—and we would warn Democratic politicians that unless they give satisfaction on these points, they will be again consigned to powerlessness and obscurity in 1876. We know that they flatter themselves that as "practical men" they know more about these things than we do who do not attend caucuses, and do not know how to "control primaries," but we tell them they are mistaken. We know a great deal more about the way the opinion of that portion of the public which controls elections is going than they do, and that they are hardly ever so far astray as when they think they are doing "cute things" and outwitting the "theorists." Their little electioneering tricks and their windy rhetoric do not reach the people who hold the balance of power, and we know what these people are feeling and thinking far better than the able-bodied gentlemen who do the "subsoiling" and "managing."

We think we may safely say that this confidence has of late derived abundant justification from events, and it impels us once again to call the serious attention of the Democratic chiefs to the senatorial election in Missouri. We must remind them that they have no great principle on their side to lead people to overlook even small mistakes. The recent history of the party is not illustrious, and in the matter of ideas or policy they are not one whit better off than the Republicans, if indeed they are as well off. If they dismiss Mr. Schurz from the Senate, too, they will not be able to justify it on the score of party usage or tradition. They themselves deliberately broke up that usage and tradition in 1872 when they adopted Horace Greeley as their candidate for the presidency—a man who had all his life been the bitter enemy of their organization, had never made a pretense of belonging to it, had vigorously opposed all their distinctive doctrines, and had connived at and supported many if not most of the abuses they were openly denouncing. When they nominated him, they proclaimed to the world that they were willing to do anything for success; and it will not do for them two years later to pretend that they must sacrifice everything to party discipline and fealty. Any Democrat who was able to swallow Greeley would be estopped from making wry faces over Schurz, even if Schurz were no better than Greeley.

But Schurz is better than Greeley, from the Democratic standpoint as well as from the standpoint of all intelligent and patriotic men, for a variety of reasons. If the Democratic party says that his course during the last eight years has been such that Democrats cannot trust him, then the class which turns the scale at elections will most certainly reply that the country cannot trust the Democratic party. In the first place, as has been often pointed out, reform means, at this juncture, not so much improvement in legislation as in administration and in the personnel of the Government. The country wants to see men of higher character and greater knowledge, and of better aims, in prominent positions than it is now treated to, and wants to see the public revenues and patronage used for public ends. It wants, in short, to see the term "statesman" restored to its original meaning and taken away from the motley crew of rhetoricians, tricksters, and thieves who have of late years appropriated it. Looked at from this standpoint, Mr. Schurz is a man who cannot be excluded from any party in the country at this moment calling itself a reform party. He is the most prominent man in the history of all recent attempts at reform. He has vigorously opposed, step by step, that downward course on

which the Administration entered when it appointed Tom Murphy collector of this port, and which ended in handing the control of the "reformed" civil service in the State of Massachusetts over to Ben Butler. He was the earliest and ablest promoter of that system of investigation which has already brought so much corruption to light, and which we have no doubt, if firmly prosecuted, will bring a great deal more to light hereafter. He has all along, in particular, set his face against that alliance of the Administration with the corrupt element in Southern politics which forms so disgraceful a chapter in the history of Reconstruction. He has, too, in all this been the object of especial detestation and vilification on the part of the Administration and its adherents. Its agents in the press have made him the object of vituperation and caricature which was too ruffianly to injure any man, but which carried the American press to as low a depth of degradation as it has ever reached. He belongs also to a class of men whom it must be the end and aim of any reform party to bring more prominently into public life. He speaks upon the leading questions of the day with an eloquence, ability, and fulness of information which it is no exaggeration to say is just now unequalled, and he has thus, by mere force of contrast, done much to create that disgust with the ignorance and absurdity of some leading Republican politicians which has given the Democrats their present opportunity. If these things do not entitle him to any mark of honor and confidence the Democrats have it in their power to bestow, then we are sure the country will say that the work of purifying the Government ought not to be committed to Democratic hands, and we venture to predict that it will not be.

In saying all this, we are of course not unmindful of the error into which Mr. Schurz fell in supporting even feebly the folly known as "the Greeley movement." We are, however, as well qualified as anybody to weigh this, because nobody condemned it more freely. But we knew very well that it was condemned by his own better judgment, and that he went to Cincinnati in furtherance of the very ends on which those Republicans who gave the Democrats their victory in November are now intent. We now know, too, what we then believed, that he did not go to Cincinnati a minute too soon, and that if his views had been carried out the country would either have been spared the scandals and disgraces of the past two years, or reformers would have had an organization which they would have no reason to distrust or feel ashamed to turn to for comfort or deliverance. His weakness in accepting Greeley's nomination as the result of a serious political movement was of course deplorable, but it was a weakness with which Democrats certainly cannot reproach him, and which any honest Republican politician who recalls the queer things and queer people he has himself supported in order to avoid scandal and dissension, and preserve the faith of voters in each other, will be shy about criticising. In short, if Mr. Schurz has not reached the loftiest standard of political duty and perspicacity, he has reached a standard the general adoption of which by public men would solve the problem by which the souls of patriotic Americans are to-day most vexed. If the Missouri Legislature substitutes for him one of the ignorant and obscure or ignoble busybodies or intriguers who now so often play the game called "a senatorial election," it will not only be a serious injury to the country, but as serious a disaster as could befall the party to which the majority of the members belong and which, we presume, they are anxious to serve.

CHURCH QUESTIONS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 11, 1874.

"EVERYTHING in the Empire," as Lord Cockburn somewhere says in his lately published journal, "is tinged for the present with Church." English society is deeply stirred by ecclesiastical questions. Wherever you go you find that the conversation has a bias towards Church politics. Members of Parliament, addressing their constituents, have given up speaking of the past. The five years of Liberal government and Conservative opposition, and the causes of the estrangement of the people from the Gladstone government, as topics for extra-parliamentary speeches, are relegated to the domain

of history. The future is again in the ascendant, and all the more important utterances of late have reference to the relations of Church and State. Newspapers are full of the same subject; and whether in society, or in the public speeches of members of Parliament, or in the newspapers, much the same view is accepted, and that view Mr. Fawcett, the member for Hackney, puts in these words: "Nothing is more remarkable than the change which has come over the Disestablishment question. Twelve months ago the disestablishment of the English Church was spoken of as the distant dream of a few enthusiastic fanatics, but now even moderate politicians speak of it as a change certain to come, and the only question is by whom and in what form it shall be done." It is difficult to say how this has come about. It has not been sought for or pushed into the front prematurely, but it seems as if the question had struck its roots far down, and in the process of maturing had taken an unusual start with unexpected rapidity. The Government are in a sense responsible. The stream was flowing very languidly, but an impetus was given to it by the prominence assigned to ecclesiastical questions last session. The Public Worship Regulation Act and the Abolition of Church Patronage (Scotland) Act opened the sluices, and the Government claim the credit and must take the responsibility of both these measures. The immediate result has been a pamphlet controversy in England, the brunt of which is borne by Mr. Gladstone, and a pamphlet controversy in Scotland, the brunt of which is borne by Mr. Gladstone's late colleague, the Duke of Argyll, and, indirectly, both these controversies have given a new prominence to the question of disestablishment.

Mr. Gladstone's paper on Ritualism in the *Contemporary Review* for October was in itself of small political significance. It was interesting and suggestive as containing the thoughts of a single Christian addressed to his fellow-Christians, warning them against letting any forms or ceremonies that give them pleasure stand in the place of real communion with God, and as illustrating the simplicity and piety of nature which the author has preserved pure through a long political career. The second paper, that on the Vatican Decrees, is of a different character, and has, as you are well aware, moved society in Western Europe both inside and outside the church of Rome, and especially in Germany, in a manner that is almost startling. Its direct effect on English politics is likely to be small. Henceforth it is probable that the Irish vote both in the constituencies and in Parliament will be even less to be depended on by either party than heretofore; and that, to my mind, is not of much consequence. Since the Emancipation Act was passed the Irishmen in the House of Commons have been more Liberal than Tory, because they had, or imagined they had, more to expect from the former party than from the latter. But now that they see no prospect of future favors from the Liberals, they are verging towards the other side, to which, moreover, the traditions and temperament of the Catholic faith incline. By all means let them go if the Tories want them; or let them drift about, a powerless body in the Legislature, now on one side and now on the other. In the past they could never be trusted in emergencies by either party, and they never will be in the future. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet, however, may indirectly have considerable political influence. It will strengthen the hold which he has upon the more evangelical and dissenting bodies in the state—a hold which malignant and persistent insinuations about his Romish tendencies had somewhat relaxed—and while in one sense it may, by directing attention to the Church of Rome, weaken the strain which is upon the Church of England at present, in another sense it will tighten it, because by keeping the public mind fixed upon ecclesiastical questions it cannot but tend to hasten on the wider questions of the relation of church and state which are looming in the future, and with which, it is now pretty generally believed, Mr. Gladstone will not be averse to grapple when public opinion is prepared to follow him.

In Scotland matters are much nearer to a crisis, and, as might be expected in a practical country, the issues are more tangible and definite than in England. The Presbyterian Church is fundamentally a democratic institution, and one of its leading principles is that the minister shall be elected by the congregation to whom he ministers. This principle of election prevailed until the reign of Queen Anne, when a Tory government smuggled through Parliament an act restoring the rights of patronage to the Crown and to individual patrons. Out of this act of Parliament, which was directly antagonistic to the genius of the Scotch Church, the various secessions from the Establishment, including the great disruption of 1843, have all arisen. These secessions have weakened, and, indeed, almost destroyed the influence of the church. The present generation of Scotch Tories, wiser, or, it may turn out, more foolish, than their predecessors of Queen Anne's time, seeing that the Church of Scotland was undergoing shipwreck, determined last session to make a bold bid for safety by undoing the hasty legislation of a century and a half ago, and they passed an act which repealed the obnoxious statute of Anne, and gave the right of presentation to each congregation of the Es

tailed Church. It was a daring venture, and thirty years ago, had such an act been passed, it would have prevented the disruption and saved the church. Now it is too late. The Free Church and other dissenting bodies outnumber the Established Church by nearly three to one, and they have vigorously commenced a crusade against it. In Queen Anne's time, and indeed down to 1843, the Established Church was the Church of Scotland; Dissenters were but a fraction of the population. It is not so now. The Established Church is the church of the minority. In some Highland parishes such a thing as a congregation belonging to the Established Church has no existence. It is a farce to give the right of presentation to a congregation consisting of a couple of families (the minister's and the schoolmaster's) and a few sheep dogs. In such cases the right of presentation should be given to the parish, not to the congregation. The Established Church, by the act of last session, has voluntarily separated itself from the land and from the Crown—in other words, from the nation. It has become a sect free from all national trammels and all state control, but living on national property. So the opponents of the church have begun to argue, and, in an important public meeting held two days ago in Edinburgh, in which some of the leading politicians and ministers belonging to the dissenting denominations took an active part, resolutions were passed condemning the existing relation between the state and the church in Scotland, and pledging the meeting to commence hostile operations against the church.

But being, as I have said, a practical people, the Scotch have set a tangible and definite proposal before them. Their proposal is this: The funds, they say, engrossed by the present church establishment in Scotland, if fully realized, would amount to upwards of £300,000 annually. This is national property. Let this national property be applied to a national object. The providing of a sound secular and religious education for the children of Scotland is a national object. It takes about £300,000 annually to maintain the Scotch school system. Why should not the Established Church be left to support itself, like the other Presbyterian churches, and the £300,000 which it monopolizes be applied for providing, not a pauper, but a free education for the whole youth of Scotland? This is plain speaking, and, if you grant the minor premiss, it is sufficiently logical to satisfy even the Scotch mind. It is to meet these and similar arguments growing out of the Patronage Abolition Act that the Duke of Argyll has rushed into a pamphlet controversy. He had better have left it alone. He has done no good either to himself or to the cause. His motives in supporting the measure introduced by his political opponents were no doubt good. His desire was and is to see a really national church in Scotland sufficiently comprehensive to include all Presbyterian sects within itself. But he did not calculate upon the amount of animosity which the Established Church had raised in the breasts of leading members of the non-established churches. Perhaps the promoters of the measure did not do so either. However that may be, the result promises to be fatal to the Establishment. At the next general election Disestablishment and Disendowment will be the shibboleth in the Scotch constituencies, and while in England we may watch with interest how the problems work themselves out in the sister country, we may take this lesson to heart, that if we wish to keep up the relations between the church and the state here we had better leave the church alone. Left to itself, it may survive for many years, but if any party in the state commence to tinker it with the view to its improvement, they will only bring the fabric down upon their heads.

TWO DEBATES IN THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, Dec. 7, 1874.

"THE fight has grown hotter." So the leader of the Ultramontanes in the Reichstag confessed last Friday. Mr. Windthorst deserves the grateful acknowledgments of all his adversaries for this frank confession. During the summer and the early fall, rumors, which could be traced to high sources, were afloat that the bishops were seriously discussing the project of a compromise with the Government, and, though nothing was done to that effect, yet the rumors were to some extent kept alive by the apparent calm during the first two weeks of this session of the Reichstag. There were many people who, in spite of their earnest desire to help the speedy return of peace, could not help wishing that the rumors might prove to be unfounded, for they were firmly convinced that, under the actual circumstances, such a compromise could not be anything but a foul truce. The last week has proved the correctness of this view to many who at first did not hold it: the storm has cleared away the fog.

Before I proceed to a description of the last exciting incidents of the conflict, let us cast a glance at the battle-field and review the combatants. It will be well known to your readers that the Reichstag is divided into ten to twelve different parties, none of them commanding a majority of all the

votes. The whole number of deputies is 382. In 1871, of these 382 seats, 127 were held by the National-Liberals, 62 by the Centre, 56 by the Conservatives, 37 by the Deutsche Reichspartei, 29 by the Liberale Reichspartei, 45 by the Fortschrittspartei, 2 by the Social Democrats; the remaining 24 seats were held by the Poles, Particularisten, Volkspartei, and Protestpartei. In 1874 the Conservatives have lost 34 seats (22), the Liberale Reichspartei 26 (3), the Deutsche Reichspartei 4 (33); the Social-Democrats have gained 7 seats, Fortschrittspartei 4, National-Liberale 28, Centre, 29. These numbers, however, do not sufficiently indicate the relative strength of the parties. The number of electors voting for the candidates of the Fortschrittspartei has increased from 349,048 to 479,151 (+ 130,103, + 0.6 per cent.); National-Liberale from 1,202,039 to 1,601,368 (+ 409,329, + 1.3 per cent.); Social-Democrats from 120,108 to 339,058 (+ 218,950, + 3.7 per cent.); Centre from 693,875 to 1,442,627 (+ 748,752, + 11.0 per cent.). So the Centre, and next the Social-Democrats, can boast of having gained the most ground. To draw from this undeniable fact the conclusion that the Empire is sliding down-hill would, however, be wholly unjustified. In 1871, of all the people entitled to vote, 51 per cent. actually voted; in 1874 (without Alsace and Lorraine), the vote polled was 61.6 per cent. of the whole number of electors. With the exception of five election districts, the number of voters has everywhere increased; by far the greatest increase is found in the districts where a majority of the population belong to the Roman Catholic Church. The heaviest vote has been polled in Swabia, 84.4 per cent.; the place next to the last is occupied by Berlin, 36.3 per cent. In all the districts where there has been a vote polled of over 74 per cent., the majority of the population are—with the single exception of the older branch of Reuss—Roman Catholics; and wherever the majority of the population are Roman Catholics the voting has been above the average. On the other side, in all the districts where the vote polled is below 50 per cent., three-quarters or more of the whole population belong to either of the Protestant churches. So we see that a great majority of those who have thus far stood aloof from the polls can be safely presumed to be friendly to the Empire. However severely they deserve to be blamed for neglecting their political duties, there is no question that they will step forward whenever it comes to the worst. The Ultramontanes, on the contrary, have already brought forth pretty nearly their last man. This ought to be kept in view. It will, to some extent, help us to understand their apparent folly in bending the bow with such violence at the risk of breaking it before the time.

Wherever there is openly avowed or covert enmity against the Empire, there has been a general and passionate outcry against Bismarck for having met the criticism passed by Mr. Winterer on the administration of Alsace and Lorraine with the brutal barbarian's *re vicit!* The short and disjointed sentences reported by the telegraph gave some color to such an interpretation of the Chancellor's speech. Since the full text of the provocation and of the answer have been spread before the public, no candid and impartial man will any longer sustain the accusation. For many a year it has been notorious that Bismarck disdains the common art of diplomats of dealing blows from behind a screen of smooth and oily words. He pleases himself with calling things by their right names, and, if irritated, he does this in the manner of a very outspoken or even somewhat rough man. Thus far Bismarck had been astonishingly cautious in the selection of his phraseology towards the representatives of the Provinces. They did not choose to understand him; it remains to be seen whether the roaring of the lion finds an easier access to their ears. Only the manner in which he spoke was new and rather striking; what he said he had repeated already many times, and it is so self-evident that no man capable of a sober political thought needs a Bismarck to see the correctness of it. The representatives of the Provinces start in all their reasoning from the fact that they do not like at all to belong to the Empire. Bismarck, on the other hand, starts from the fact that they do belong to the Empire, and that they have been joined to it for a purpose. These two starting-points being opposed to each other, the parties, of course, find each other more widely separated the further they go. Mr. Winterer tells what the Provinces wish to get, and claims it as right, and founds the title on general abstract theories and the above-mentioned *Cislike*. Bismarck answers bluntly: The question is not at all what *you* like, but what best serves the purpose for which we conquered you. That, certainly, is not agreeable to hear; but no one ever asserted that it is agreeable to be a conquered province. The question is not now whether it was right or wrong to conquer the provinces. Germany has conquered them and is resolved to keep them, and, as Bismarck has now emphatically repeated, not because they were once stolen from her, nor because the inhabitants are a German tribe, but because she was victorious in a just war, and needed them as a wall against the enemy who for centuries has never missed an opportunity of gratifying his thirst for glory and increasing his power at her expense. And as long as they do nothing but "squint with one eye towards France,

and with the other towards Rome," as the Chancellor said, they cannot serve as such a wall unless they are held with the iron grasp of the conqueror. In their own hands it lies to loosen this grasp. Bismarck's assertion is sustained by the fact that he had not only hoped but also expected that he would at an earlier moment be able to trust the provinces with a larger share of self-government. But it is a strange way for conquered provinces to support their demand for self-government by most violent attacks against everything he has done, against all his dearest interests, against the very principles of his *whole* policy. The Government is engaged in a struggle for life and death with the Ultramontanes, and one of the main arguments of Mr. Winterer for the necessity of the immediate grant of self-government is the crime of the Chancellor, in that he has taken the schools out of the hands of the clergy, and that the University at Strassburg is fostering a German spirit. The sooner and the more completely the provinces learn to feel and to act as a part of Germany, the sooner they will be allowed to assume the position of an equal; the more and the longer they choose to stand aloof with the sullen looks of enemies, the more and the longer theirs will be the hard lot of the vanquished. They are as yet far from enjoying self-government, but they are no longer under the absolute dictatorship of the Chancellor. They have already received proof that the Government knows full well that their value as a rampart against France will be increased just in proportion as their interests become identical with those of the Empire and their attachment to it increases, and that it is not guilty of the folly of believing a dictatorship the right means to bring about such an attachment. But this is, under all circumstances, a plant of very slow growth. No sensible man expects as yet to see even the first germs of it. What the Government wants to know is only how far it may safely trust. It has taken the first step forward, and now it is for the Alsations to meet it half-way. In this announcement culminates the speech of Bismarck, in which his adversaries affect to find nothing but a *va victis!*

Whether it would not have been better policy to take a somewhat larger step towards meeting the Alsations is, of course, a debatable question. In order to answer it correctly, one must, however, not forget that, like the Jews, we dare not lay aside sword and shield while we are building the temple, for at any moment the enemy may be down upon us from all sides. Those who think that there is exaggeration in this statement may read the full report of last Friday's debate in the Reichstag. The battle was opened by Mr. Jörg of Bavaria, the leader of the Ultramontanes of South Germany, whom the party has chosen to take the vacant place of the late Mr. Malinckrodt. He commenced by accusing Bismarck of keeping the diplomatic committee of the Bundesrat (in which Prussia is not represented and Bavaria holds the principal place) out in the cold, insinuating that some fine day we might find ourselves engaged in a war, which would have been avoided if the Chancellor had suffered the other governments really to exercise their constitutional influence on the foreign relations of the Empire. This was followed up by an enumeration of the cases in which Bismarck has been guilty of a "flagrant intervention in the home concerns" of foreign states, *i.e.*, his remonstrances against the insults heaped upon the Empire by the French bishops, and the recognition of the Spanish Republic. According to the speaker, the Chancellor was in both cases prompted by nothing but his desire to strike a blow at the Ultramontanes wherever he found them. The recognition of the Spanish Republic Dr. Jörg deems a terrible fiasco, because Russia has failed to recognize her too, and because Russia is at present more than ever before the arbiter of Europe. This fiasco, which has sapped the good understanding between the three emperors, would have been avoided if the legitimate action of the diplomatic committee had not been superseded by the personal government of the Chancellor. In a not very logical way, but for a reason which it is not difficult to understand, the speaker managed to bring in the attempt at Kissiungen, and called Kullmann a "half-crazy man." It is probable that Dr. Jörg did not expect quite so rough a handling from the "century-man" as he was treated to. The insinuations as to the first point Bismarck characterized as "fit for novels and children's reading-books." The foreign relations of the Empire were "a pretty clean wash." He did more than strict duty required to keep the other German governments *au courant*; there was no desire to weaken their legitimate influence, and they did not need the perfidious instigations of Dr. Jörg to take good care of it. As to Spain, his (Bismarck's) first thought after receiving the news of the shooting of Captain Schmidt had been: "To an English, American, Russian, or French newspaper correspondent that would not have happened." The government at Madrid he could not hold responsible for it, and to retaliate on the Carlists in a barbarian's way he could not do, either; so he chose "to strengthen by recognition the remnants of political consolidation still to be found" in the unhappy country. Russia had followed a different policy, which had to be respected; but if Dr. Jörg has thought, "with his small arrows aiming in that direction, to cause a little ill-temper, he only excites our mirth. Heaven

be thanked, our relations there stand firm and tower high above such little attempts. If the gentleman spoke of my fiasco, I can only answer, I would not like to exchange it for the one which has just happened to him." As to Kullmann, several eminent physicians have officially testified to the fact that he was entirely in his senses. That Dr. Jörg and his party protest with disgust against being brought into any connection with this "assassin" is a matter of course, and nobody will doubt their candor; "but yet he holds fast to your coat-tails; he calls you *his* fraction." At the statement of these "historical facts," cries of "Fie! fie!" arose from the benches of the Centre, and a scene ensued such as was never before witnessed in the Reichstag. After the president had at last succeeded in restoring order, Mr. Windthorst came to the rescue of his worsted friend, speaking of the "unfortunate" Kullmann, and making Bismarck responsible for the conflict, the natural consequence of which was that "here and there unfortunate men are seized with madness."

The judgment not only of the majority of the Reichstag but also of the nation on this debate may be read in the short speech of Mr. Lasker: "It is not the first time that the German Government is accused of planning and plotting to provoke the peace-loving French nation into war. This manœuvre I want to stigmatize before all Germany. . . . To declare this of the governments of Germany in public assembly, to incite in this manner all foreign powers against Germany, is unworthy of a representative. And I want to brand this policy, that henceforth all the attacks of this gentleman (Mr. Windthorst) may appear before Germany as what they really are, and not as what they pretend to be—as crimes against the Fatherland." Mr. Lasker was called to order for using unparliamentary language. Mr. Forkenbeck was right in doing so; but Mr. Simson, Mr. Bennigsen, and all the other prominent members who rushed up to Mr. Lasker to grasp his hands, were right too.

I am far from having told my whole story. Many facts giving particular significance and importance to these two debates might and perhaps should be mentioned yet. But your patience will be exhausted, and, as the play is going on, some other opportunity will be offered to take notice of them in their proper connection.

Correspondence.

AN ALLEGED DICTUM OF COPERNICUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his 'Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy' (vol. i., p. 272) Mr. John Fiske advances the proposition that "while metaphysics is satisfied with nothing short of subjective congruity, it is quite enough for a scientific hypothesis that it gives a correct description of the observed coexistences and sequences among phenomena," and then adds in a note: "This is distinctly stated by Copernicus: 'Neque enim necesse est eas hypotheses esse verae, sed sufficit hoc unum, si calculum observationibus congruentem exhibeantur.'" For this quotation Mr. Fiske gives the authority of Mr. Lewes ('Aristotle,' p. 92; 'Problems of Life and Mind,' vol. i., p. 317).

Without desiring at this time to raise the question whether or not Mr. Fiske's proposition, in the broad and unqualified form in which he states it, is tenable, I beg leave to call attention to the fact that Copernicus is in no wise responsible for the sentence attributed to him. This sentence is found in the prefatory epistle to Copernicus's great work, and was written, not by Copernicus, but by Osiander, as Mr. Lewes ought to have known, even if he quoted at second-hand. Many years before the publication of Lewes's 'Aristotle' (in which, by the way, the sentence referred to is misquoted) Mr. Whewell wrote ('History of the Inductive Sciences,' vol. i., p. 268; Appleton's reprint of 3d ed., published in 1858): "In another epistle prefixed to the work (by Andreas Osiander) the reader is reminded that the hypotheses of astronomers are not necessarily asserted to be true by those who propose them, but only to be a way of *representing* facts." That Mr. Whewell is right appears from a notice in the well-known Warsaw edition of the book in question ('Nicolai Copernici de Revolutionibus Orbium Cœlestium libri sex.' Varsavie, 1854), where we read, p. xxxii:

"Prima operis Copernici editio in hunc modum facta est. Copernicus postquam librum scripsit, diu perpolitum tandem Tidemannus Gysius Episcopo Culmensi sibi amicissimo, qui multis jam annis eum ut ederet hortatus erat, sua voluntate typis excudendum tradidit. Gysius misit Rhetico-professori Wittembergensi, qui Norimbergam ad librum in lucem edendum aptissimam judicaverat, et librum typis excudendum curaturos Joannem Schonerum et Andream Osiandrum elegit. Osiander autem, ut videtur, eo consilio usus, ut animi nova doctrina incitati mitigarentur, Copernici præfatione rejecta, ipse pauca, *Copernici rationi et sententia non consentanea*, ad lectorem ita præfatus est, ut novam doctrinam tanquam conjecturam proponeret. Quod agre ferens Gysius, in literis die mensis Julii, anni 1543 (*i.e.*, duobus

mensibus post Copernici mortem) ad Rheticum datis, malam fidem et editoris et typographi deplorat."

J. B. S.

CINCINNATI, DEC. 20, 1874.

THE MOOD OF SCIENCE AND THE MOOD OF FAITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your note to "Scientist's" letter, and in your able article on the same subject, you seem to me *rem acu tetigisse*. Men are essentially gregarious, and in thought as in polities follow models and leaders rather than reasons. Physical science has well earned the great authority she enjoys for solidity of premise and certainty of conclusion. But how has she earned it? By the modesty of her aims and the excellence of her method, and by these alone. By her method of verification she has racked and ridled and cross-examined every theory and every detail of fact, before letting it pass muster; and where the subject was too vague quantitatively for such control to be devised, she has avowedly held all conclusions as provisional and subject to future correction. Hence her prestige, hence the relative discredit of moral speculation, whose votaries have insisted on defining and characterizing the entire universe in one single effort.

But now that an age of synthesis seems approaching, scientific men obey the current, cut loose from the old traditions of taking things piecemeal and contentedly ignoring much, and commit themselves to vast theories which, whether true or false, stand at least as much unverified to-day, in the strict scientific sense of the word verification, as any of the theosophies of the past. Your correspondent "Scientist" says they have a perfect right to do so. As men, of course they have! Heaven forbid that they should not sometimes outstrip the proof, and, no longer sicklied o'er with scruples about crucial experiments and adequate evidence, yield to the pleasure of taking for true what they happen vividly to conceive as possible. Only when this exhilarated, but by no means unhealthy, mood is upon them, let it be distinctly recognized for what it is—the mood of Faith, not Science. And when the partisan herd girds itself up to exercise its right of following its leaders, let it be told beforehand by what route they are to pass, whether over scientific highways and bridges or by balloon. But when the leaders assume to be mouthpieces still of Science, while throwing off all that has been hitherto distinctive in that service; when like Dr. Tyndall they "abandon disguise" and "confess"—what presumably must have been authentically imparted to them; or when like Prof. Huxley they proclaim what is merely one out of several equally unverified conceptions as if it were an established truth, and proceed to rally the faithful around them by pealing the slogan, and branding in advance all critics of this particular hypothesis as minions of "Ecclesiasticism": why then it behoves every clear-headed guide of public opinion to insist as loudly as he can upon the truth that in these perilously recondite regions no man's *authority* is worth a jot. A man's authority means the presumption that his opinion will be right in a given matter—in that matter, namely, in which he has had a great personal experience of concrete particulars. In the matter of radiant heat, most of us will do well to submit our judgment to Dr. Tyndall's, and in the matter of the bones of the ear or the pedigree of porpoises to bow to Dr. Huxley's mere opinion. But in the question of the essence of life, terrestrial or other, I feel sure Dr. Tyndall has access to no data which are not open to any other person of equally enthusiastic nature—to Mr. Beecher for example; nor do I think Prof. Huxley's "expertness" in anatomy entitles him to hold his notion that consciousness is something less than the fabled fly on the coach-wheel, any more dogmatically than Archbishop Manning's ordination authorizes in him the opposite opinion. In "science," as a whole, no man is expert, no man an authority; in other words, there is no such thing as an abstract "Scientist"—fearful word! And where the subject-matter is vague, and sedulously kept *in abstracto* (as in these questions of the potencies of matter and the dynamics of consciousness), no man is expert beyond his neighbor, nor can any one, except perhaps the Pope, fall back upon his antecedent occupations for support.

By all means let every man who has a stomach for the fray be admitted to the speculative arena. But let it be on an equal footing with all comers, all to wear the speculative colors, no odds given, and no favors shown. And may the critics help fair-play as much as possible by pointing out to the excellent but rather unperceptive public that this wild-eyed champion, who is now seen throwing in his hat and cracking his joints, *was* no other than the laborious and accurate physicist, chemist, or physiologist Blank, who, having got tired for a time of the laboratory's confinement, now appears in his new and brilliant rôle of Blank, the Audacious and Ingenious Speculative Philosopher, in which he hopes to outdo even those who are to the manner born.

And who knows but that now, in honestly disusing the colors of a

"scientist," and refusing to imperil their hard-earned lustre, he may even gain a victory over his antagonists? Not I surely, for I am

Yours very truly,

IGNORAMUS.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., DEC. 25, 1874.

THE AMENDMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted a few suggestions upon the subject discussed in a recent issue of the *Nation* (No. 493) under the caption "The Protection of the Negro"—viz., the scope of the last Amendments? Heartily agreeing as I do with your strictures upon the extreme enactments of Congress against the acts of individuals, under the pretense of enforcing certain prohibitions upon the States as such, as being unwarranted by the Amendments upon any principle of constitutional interpretation which obtained prior to their adoption, yet I cannot but think that you underestimate the actual change—and that a most dangerous one—which the Amendments have wrought in the relation of the States to the Federal Government. It seems to me only too plain that certain clauses in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments have had, and while unpealed will increasingly have in the future, "an effect on State rights and duties greater and other than the prohibitory clauses already existing in the Constitution," and an effect sure to lead to "unprecedented departure from the beaten track of American Constitutional Law."

Prior to these late grafts upon our political system, there was but one way to enforce any prohibition of the Constitution upon State action, viz., through the orderly operation of an appeal to a National Tribunal from the decision of a State Court upholding any assumption of unconstitutional powers by the State. The principle was well established that positive legislation by Congress to enforce prohibitions upon the States did not belong to that class of laws which were "necessary and proper" to carry into effect the powers granted to the government. Now, the Amendments have certainly changed all this. Incorporated in each of them is a special grant of power to Congress to enforce its provisions, by "appropriate legislation." It is idle to say that this legislation means no more than Congress might have enacted before, viz., the facilitating of appeals from State to Federal Courts upon questions involving the Amendments. "Appropriate legislation," under the circumstances, means something more and different from that to which Congress had heretofore been competent.

What then is it? Certainly it must comprehend, by any just construction of the grant, the exercise of the most sweeping powers in the contingency of State action contravening the provisions of the Amendments, and that in such contingency these powers must operate upon individuals, I think can hardly be denied by any one who will fairly consider what, under such circumstances, would be "appropriate" to the case, and what was contemplated in the proposal of the Amendments for adoption. If this be so, we can see at a glance that a vast increase has been made in the original civil jurisdiction of the Federal Courts, and that a province of criminal legislation has been opened to Congress which is simply appalling. If it be said that the clauses in the Amendments authorizing legislation by Congress can practically add nothing to the power which is already given by the provision of the Constitution extending the original jurisdiction of the United States Courts to all cases arising under the Constitution and the laws of Congress, the only answer is that then the objection is even stronger, for under that provision Congress can make that jurisdiction exclusive, and an exclusive jurisdiction of all matters comprised in the Fourteenth Amendment would deprive the State Courts of a very large province of their common-law powers. The question of *personal* rights involved in that amendment is a very much broader one than that of national *citizenship*—partially defined in the "Slaughter-House Cases"—and one which as yet has received no adjudication in the court of last resort. What is to hinder Congress to-day from opening the United States courts in California for the purpose of securing to the Chinaman the rights of person and property that are denied him under the State laws?

The effect of such a vast increase in the power and functions of the Federal governmental machinery within the several States as has been here suggested would be unmistakable. It would essentially alter the relation of the individual to the national government, and by so much would serve to extinguish, both in his estimation and as an actual fact, the integrity of the State as a commonwealth. What the exact conditions must be upon which Congress can act is also, it seems to me, a question of considerable difficulty. It certainly cannot be limited to the contingency of positive legislation by a State. Cases where, from the established decisions of the State Courts upon the subject-matter, parties would reasonably fear that their rights under the Amendments would not be secured in those courts, would of course come

within the rule. The recent decision of the Indiana Supreme Court on the question of public instruction could very plausibly be urged as a fair instance. How undefined the limits of this new Federal domain are—viz., what is sufficient action by a State to warrant Federal legislation—may be seen by the opening jurisdictional clause of the Ku-Klux Act of April, 1871. It provides against the acts of individuals “under color of any law, statute, ordinance, regulation, *custom, usage, of any State*,” etc. Just how far we must go in this gradation before the point of rightful Congressional interference is reached might well tax a greater mind than his who drew this bill. More can be said, I feel forced to admit, on the side of a constructive denial of “the equal protection of the laws” (instance, the third section of the Ku-klux Act) than I should wish. Certain it is that the Congress which passed this bill meant to claim the broadest power possible under any construction of the amendment, and the opening clause quoted above only serves to exhibit the difficulty and danger with which the subject is fraught. However remote the possibility may be of a State legislature or its courts directly contravening the provisions of the Amendments, yet it certainly is plain that a large additional province of most pernicious Federal interference within the States has been created, and by so much has the national Government been aggrandized at the expense of the States, and our original Constitutional system mutilated. And the danger arising is not merely from the propagation and enforcement of such extreme views as are found in portions of the legislation of recent Congresses and in some of Mr. Blaine's late speeches. These dissipate with the passions and party exigencies which prompted them. What I apprehend is the growth of a body of law based upon the actual change—be it greater or smaller—which I consider the Amendments to have made in our confederated system of government, and which will serve to perpetuate that change with its attendant evils. Indeed, the danger, to my mind, is so real that I can look to nothing short of further fundamental legislation to avoid it.

P. S.

111 BROADWAY. December 21, 1874.

Notes.

THE several educational monthlies of the Eastern States are to be merged hereafter with the *College Courant* under the title of the *New England Journal of Education*. The new journal, which will resemble the *Courant* in size and style, will be published weekly in Boston, with Hon. T. W. Bicknell (formerly of the *Rhode Island Teacher*) as editor-in-chief. Each State will be represented on the staff of the paper by a local editor. The subscription price is three dollars.—Mr. Stephen Noyes, of the Brooklyn Mercantile Library, has sent us the second edition of his convenient Class List of English Prose Fiction (including juveniles and translations), with a supplement of four pages, covering the accessions from November 1, 1873.—Americans abroad, and may be some at home, will be interested in the sale of the well-known art collection of Hon. H. S. Sanford, late U. S. Minister to Belgium, which takes place in Brussels on the 15th of February next, in consequence of a change of residence on the owner's part. Catalogues may be obtained of Etienne Le Roy, rue des Chevaliers, Brussels.—We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the concluding parts (there are eighteen in all) of ‘Ritter's Geographisch-statistisches Lexicon,’ which will be found extremely useful to persons engaged in commerce (with Germany in particular), and answers most of the ordinary purposes of a gazetteer. It is in two volumes.—Mr. J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway, has taken the American agency of Mr. P. G. Hamerton's well-known art-journal, the *Portfolio*, which is published monthly at twelve dollars per annum.

—Apropos of the strawberry, we have received still another communication which is worth printing. The writer says: Your correspondent has not given exactly the “right wording” of the enology of the strawberry, as Walton quoted it. Read, “As Dr. Boteler said of strawberries, ‘Doubtless God could have made a better berry, but doubtless God never did.’” In this form, nearly, it may be found in an older book than Walton's, namely, Roger Williams's ‘Key into the Language of America,’ printed in London in 1643, ten years before the first edition of the ‘Complete Augler.’ “This Berry,” wrote Williams, “is the wonder of all the Fruits growing naturally in those parts: It is of it selfe Excellent: so that one of the chiefest Doctors of England was wont to say, that God could have made, but God never did make a better Berry.” (‘Key,’ p. 98.) Did Walton take the quotation from Williams? or, as seems more probable, did both take it from some earlier writer?

—Gerit Smith died in this city on Monday last, and in him, as so recently in Ezra Cornell, Central New York loses a conspicuous and useful citizen, as generous and philanthropic as he was wealthy, and actively concerned with all questions of public interest up to the very sudden termination of his long

career. His warm heart, keenly sensitive to every form of suffering brought to his attention, controlled all the other elements of his nature, and more than once led him impulsively to assume positions from which a logical consistency would have kept him. In this respect he resembled not a little both Mr. Greeley and Mr. Beecher; and there was even a still closer resemblance to the former in the mental disturbance by which Mr. Smith was temporarily unsettled after the John Brown raid, just as Mr. Greeley's mind was hardly able to endure the reality of civil war when it came. In spite of his hearty denunciation of runsmellers and slaveholders, Mr. Smith was incapable of lasting resentment towards any one, and his charity, like his goodness, knew no bounds. No one who had not been the recipient of his unostentatious bounty, or who had not known him personally either away from or beneath his most hospitable of hospitable roofs, could form a just idea of the real and rare beauty of his character. In his own neighborhood he was a most excellent friend and helper to all who sought his advice or excited his never-failing sympathy. His political career was not remarkable for strength or effectiveness; mainly for independence of thought and action. He was something more than a Free-soiler or Republican; something less than an Abolitionist. The fugitive slave had no better friend. Mr. Smith was born at Utica, March 6, 1797, and received his education at Hamilton College, which he has since endowed liberally. He succeeded to the vast estates of his father, Peter Smith, residing at Peterboro', not far from Syracuse. From this delightful retirement he often emerged to take part in public proceedings, but for many years also kept up his connection with the outer world by means of tracts, in the shape of letters, which he had printed in his own home, and which he distributed widely to the press throughout the country. Perhaps the view most at variance with public sentiment which he persisted in urging was, that the care of schools (as of churches) falls wholly outside the limits of government and wholly within the range of “the voluntary principle.”

—The *Athenaeum* of December 12 is unusually readable, owing to its early reviews of two important works, viz., ‘The Last Journals of David Livingstone,’ and Halliwell's ‘Illustrations of the Life of Shakespeare.’ We find in it also the reply of Messrs. Lippincott & Co. to the editorial statement of Dr. W. Chambers in regard to the mutilation of his *Encyclopædia*. They say that they were not aware of many of the alterations made in the American edition; that they will not attempt to justify the action of their editors in changing the articles specially referred to (Free-trade, Protection, Slavery, etc.); that these articles (“certain articles”), in being rewritten, “were naturally made to express what was believed to be the most recent and correct views of the subjects treated, from an American standpoint,” seeing that it was expected that the revised edition would be sold in this market only. In other words, “the changes were made solely with a view to the adaptation of the work to the requirements of this country, and many of them were absolutely necessary to correctly present facts, especially in relation to America.” This leaves the matter where we supposed it would be left—i.e., on the shoulders of the publishers, so far as marking out the general line of revision goes, including doubtless the free-trade portions of the *Encyclopædia*; and on the shoulders of the editors, wherever it has been or might be shown that they exceeded their instructions or overstepped the natural limits of propriety. Messrs. Lippincott assert that they sufficiently advertised their revision “in numerous circulars and in the concluding editorial notice”; but they apparently left their subscribers to detect the revised articles by the insulting expressions having reference to Great Britain which were contained in them. The voluntary amends which they propose to make the Messrs. Chambers is to designate their issue hereafter as the American Revised Edition, and they offer besides to “cheerfully take such action as will relieve the Messrs. Chambers of the responsibility of the revisions.” We shall be surprised if the Messrs. Chambers do not find the voluntary amends rather scanty; and since the Messrs. Lippincott shield themselves behind an imaginary “American market” to which they are under no obligations to apologize, we feel bound to say that there is no American demand for protectionist articles in cyclopedias American or foreign (encyclopedias ought to be expository, not propagandist or vituperative), or articles apologetic of slavery or abusive of the British monarchy and its present representatives; and that, from an “American standpoint,” the least the Messrs. Lippincott could offer to do would be to rewrite the articles in question in a decent, temperate spirit, alike respectful to the Edinburgh publishers and to the country to which they belong.

—The most eminent textual critic of the New Testament. Professor Tischendorf, died in Leipzig, after a lingering illness of a year and a half, on Monday morning, Dec. 7, aged fifty-nine. His first critical edition of the New Testament, published when he was a young man, was received with such favor as to indicate distinctly his future career. In order to compare the different manuscripts of the New Testament, he was compelled to make

numerous and extensive travels. He had been three times in England and three times in the East. On one of his Oriental tours he was so fortunate as to discover the Sinaitic manuscript, which is the oldest known copy of the New Testament, and of inestimable worth in textual criticism. Much of his brilliant reputation was due to this discovery, supported as it was by the keenest critical acumen and a marvellous power of physical endurance. His revisions have been circulated everywhere, and to an extent beyond all precedent. In Leipzig alone not less than twenty-two of his critical editions have been published. His authorized English New Testament, containing the variations of the three most important manuscripts, was published by Tauchnitz, and in the first year (1869) nearly fifty thousand copies were sent into the United Kingdom. He died before he had finished the work upon which he was employed, a large and comprehensive critical edition of the New Testament being left incomplete. A manual of Palaeography, which no one else is in a position to write as he could have written it, he had not even begun. The procession which followed his body to the grave was one befitting his work and life. The different societies of students attended *en masse*, or were represented by delegates. Many of the university professors were present, as also members of all classes of society, commercial, civil, and military.

—Cotta announces a new "pocket edition" of Goethe's complete works in ten volumes. The text of previous editions has been quantitatively determined by the edition of Riemer and Eckermann in 1836, which was based on the author's last revision. The new text, it is said, will be improved according to the latest knowledge. In an appendix to the first volume will be given two hundred poems of undoubted genuineness which were not printed in former editions. The index to the lyrics and epics will contain the date of each poem or of its first publication. Gödeke's introductions, which have also been much improved, will be used. The "Schweighauser Verlagsbuchhandlung" of Basel is issuing a series of monthly pamphlets, containing "lectures delivered in Switzerland" by various gentlemen, principally professors. Some twenty-seven numbers have been issued. The volume (twelve numbers) costs 16 francs, though single numbers are sold. It in no way rivals the admirable "Sammlung" of Virchow and Von Holtzendorff.

—The fifth centenary of Petrarch's death was celebrated, as is well known, last July at Avignon, Padua, and Arquà, where the great poet expired. The literature occasioned by this festival is already large and on the increase. It embraces new editions of the poet's works, notably of the "Africa," the Latin poem on which Petrarch based his hopes of future fame; bibliographies of the manuscripts containing his works; biographies, etc. One of the shortest but most interesting contributions is the oration by the distinguished poet Giosuè Carducci, which was delivered near the poet's tomb in Arquà,

little out-of-the-way village on the slopes of the Euganean hills, where Petrarch sought rest from his troubled life, and found it in a peaceful death. An enterprising photographer has published seven views of the poet's house and tomb, including the fountain called after the poet, and the street leading to his house. One view gives the interior of the dining-room with its quaint fireplace and the poet's favorite cat over the library door; another view is of his desk and of the arm-chair in which he is said to have died with a copy of Virgil on his lap. These photographs are not only of interest to Petrarch's admirers, but will serve very well to illustrate Mr. Howells's pleasant account of his visit to Arquà in his "Italian Journeys."

—The beauty and excellence of the illustrations which accompany the original editions of Mr. Ruskin's writings are well known to the students of his works. They are in themselves works of art of a high order; and there are no better recent specimens of wood-cutting, of steel-engraving, and of various applications of photography than his volumes afford. He is, as is well known, now occupied in printing a series of volumes at his own cost which in every sense may be properly called the author's own edition of his works. One of the most valuable and important of these is the "Aratra Pentelici," six lectures on the elements of sculpture, printed in 1872. Of the illustrations to this volume he says in a note to the preface, p. viii.:

"Photography cannot exhibit the character of large and finished sculpture; but its audacity of shadow is in perfect harmony with the more roughly picturesque treatment necessary in coins. For the rendering of all such frank relief, and for the better explanation of forms disturbed by the lustre of metal or polished stone, the method employed in the plates of this volume will be found, I believe, satisfactory. Casts are first taken from the coins in white plaster; these are photographed, and the photograph printed by the heliotype process of Messrs. Edwards & Kidd. Plate XII. is exceptional, being a pure mezzotint engraving of the old school, excellently carried through by my assistant, Mr. Allen, who was taught, as a personal favor to myself, by my friend and Turner's fellow-worker, Thomas Lupton." The woodcuts, Mr. Ruskin adds, were drawn and engraved by Mr. Burgess, one of the most skilful, accomplished, and exact of living wood-

engravers. This note appears without alteration in the American edition of "Aratra Pentelici," published by John Wiley & Son; but the illustrations are not the same in the American edition as in the original. The heliotypes of the original, which are admirable specimens of the art, appear to have been photographed, and from the photographs thus obtained a new heliotype reproduction by a process inferior to that of Mr. Edwards has been made. The beauty of the original plates, their sharpness of definition, their balanced light and shade, are obscured, and often completely lost. The American plates are ugly and misleading. Nor is this all. The exquisite woodcuts of Mr. Burgess have been copied by an incompetent artist, their expression changed, and all that was most delicate and refined about them entirely destroyed. Anybody who can get good out of Mr. Ruskin's books ought to possess them in the original editions. They cost more, it is true, than the unsatisfactory reprint; but Mr. Ruskin asks no more for them than the cost of their getting up. They are well printed, well illustrated, and well bound. Nobody is likely to be improved by his writings who has not the small self-control required to meet the difference in cost between the author's edition and that which so unfairly represents him. It should be a point of self-respect among his readers to read his words in the style in which he offers them, even if there were no motive of self-interest in doing so. His books may be obtained from Mr. George Allen, Sunnyside, Orpington, Kent, England.

—A quarter of a century ago, at a sale of pictures in London, Mr. Morris Moore, a gentleman of some claims to a knowledge of art, bought at a small price a small painting ascribed to Mantegna. Nothing was known of the history of the picture, of which the subject was the contest between Apollo and Marsyas, but that it had been, in the last century, in the possession of a well-known collector, Mr. John Barnard, and had been sold at the sale of his pictures in 1787. The picture represented Marsyas seated on the left, playing on his flute, while Apollo stands in full front, listening to the music of his presumptuous rival. He holds a staff in his right hand; his lyre is hung upon a tree; his bow and quiver lie on the ground. Behind is a rich, varied, exquisite landscape. Mr. Morris Moore, upon study of the work, became convinced that he had obtained a treasure—nothing less than an original early painting by Raphael. It happened that in the course of the year of the purchase, 1850, Herr Passavant, the distinguished art student and author of a most elaborate and thorough "Life of Raphael," being in London, was asked by Mr. Moore to come and inspect his new acquisition and to give his judgment upon it. Upon looking at it, Passavant recognized the picture as an old acquaintance. He had seen it in London in 1831, in the hands of the dealer, Mr. Duroverny, and inadvertently enough, like an honest German, he told Mr. Moore that, in the absence of any external evidence, he could not believe the picture to be by Raphael, but should attribute it rather to the school of Francesco Francia. It might, he thought, very well be the work of Timoteo Viti of Urbino, a favorite pupil of Francia, and an assistant of Raphael in the execution of his designs of prophets and sibyls in the church of Santa Maria della Pace at Rome. Mr. Moore was very angry. Other judges and critics supported his opinion; still others refused to believe the work to be what he asserted. He engaged in active controversy concerning it. Articles and pamphlets were published in English, French, German, and Italian. He seems to have had a bellicose temper, and if he could not convince he could at least abuse his opponents. His rhetoric was more vigorous than refined. His temper did not grow calm, in spite of testimonials of Italian academies and commendations of known and unknown authorities. He addressed his pamphlets to Passavant with inscriptions like these: "A lesson for the idiot and liar, Passavant"; or, "Encore une leçon pour le vil menteur Passavant, l'infame espion Waagen, et leurs consorts du Deutsches Kunstblatt." He exhibited the picture in different cities in Italy. In Venice, in the collection of the Academy, was found a pencil-drawing of the composition. It had been ascribed by Count Ciegnara to Benedetto Montagna. Its author was not known; but now, on comparison with the picture, it was ascribed to Raphael, and its existence cited as a proof of the genuineness of the picture itself. Mr. Moore has long wished to sell the picture, but he has asked a price considered by the rich owners of private collections and the directors of public galleries too large for a work which, whatever its merits, could not be proved to have come from the hand of Raphael. He offered it in Paris, it is said, some years since for five hundred thousand francs. The picture is undoubtedly a beautiful and rare little work. The composition is graceful and simple, the coloring harmonious, the execution careful and elaborate. It is a work that belongs among the excellent Italian paintings of the end of the fifteenth or the beginning of the sixteenth century. It may be the work of Raphael, it may be the work of some less famous but still admirable artist. In the English translation of Passavant's "Life of Raphael," published in 1872, no attempt is made by the translator to dispute Passavant's opinion. And, indeed,

opinion in England has been very much divided on the matter. We learn that Mr. Moore would now be glad to have this picture, together with some others that he possesses, purchased in America. We may soon have an opportunity of seeing for ourselves the subject of controversy. But even if the picture were certainly by Raphael, it would not be worth what Mr. Moore asks for it—not worth it, that is, as a work of art; no price that can be got is too high for a dealer to ask for an article of *vertu*.

STEPHEN'S 'HOURS IN A LIBRARY.'*

EVERY intelligent person fancies that he can act as his own critic. But this supposition is erroneous. Of the ten thousand men and women who read a popular novel, not ten can either form or give a rational opinion on its merits and defects. Whoever doubts this should ask the next lady who sits by him at dinner what she thinks of 'Middlemarch' or 'Phineas Redux.' She will express her likes or dislikes with the wearisome emphasis of unmeaning superlatives, but it will soon become apparent that she cannot criticise the works either of Trollope or of George Eliot. The difficulty of criticism becomes yet more apparent if any one will examine either his own or his neighbors' estimate of what are called standard authors—of those writers, in short, whom everybody thinks himself to have studied, and not one person in a hundred has read. A candid enquirer will, if he pushes his investigations far, be astonished at his own ignorance. He will find that of Shakspere, of Pope, of Richardson, or of Swift he and his acquaintances have read but very little. His next feeling will be astonishment at the extreme difficulty of critically estimating any of those works which he may chance to have perused. It is easy to make up one's mind that one does or does not like the satires of Pope, but it is a work of considerable labor to decide even for one's self what are the characteristics which distinguish Pope from other satirists, such as Dryden or Byron. That a marked difference exists is obvious. To analyze the nature and causes of this difference, or, in other words, to justify one's admiration or dislike, is no light matter, while to express clearly the conclusions at which one has arrived, and to convince others that they are sound, is a work to which many intelligent persons are totally unequal. The truth is that in matters of literary criticism every one can give a verdict in accordance with his own sympathies or antipathies, but not one person in a thousand can deliver judgment in accordance with fixed principles of taste or of clear common-sense. Nor does this inability argue any special stupidity. A man who would criticise with effect must possess considerable knowledge, and he must have read, if not all, yet the most remarkable of an author's works, and he should also be well-versed in the writers who throw light upon the subject of his criticism. Mere learning, though essential in order to afford the material for comparison, will not of itself go far. Insight, sagacity, calm good-sense, the capacity for analysis, and the talent for expressing fine distinctions, are all gifts necessary to make up a competent critic. No one need be ashamed of not possessing all these talents; but no one is forced to perform the part of literary censor. And it would be well if readers would recognize both the fact that they are not themselves in a position to pass decided judgments on works of established reputation, and, further, that writers who can criticise with effect perform a work at once of considerable importance and of considerable difficulty. The mass of the world are apt to think that what is done easily is easy to be done, and thus to underrate a difficult performance, because of the skill of the performer.

There is some danger lest the sterling merits of Mr. Leslie Stephen's essays should thus be underrated. They are the writings of a thoroughly sensible, acute, and unpretentious critic. They read like the conversation of a clever, well-educated man, and thoughtless readers may overlook the fact that the conversation with which Mr. Stephen whiles away the hours in a library is exactly that kind of "good talk" which, as every one knows on reflection, is one of the greatest and, at the same time, rarest of intellectual enjoyments. Half Mr. Stephen's readers perhaps think they could talk as he writes. In matter of fact, they probably could not sustain for ten minutes a literary conversation of which were it printed down they would not be heartily ashamed. But persons who would find it an impossible task to imitate what seems in Mr. Stephen's hands so easy an achievement may yet gain a great deal both of interest and instruction from a study of his essays. Mr. Stephen's great merit, in our judgment, is the care with which he studies the objects of his criticism and the skill with which he applies to them the calm good-sense of a well-educated, clear-sighted man, who possesses just that kind of humor the absence of which constantly renders worthless the meritorious labors of industrious critics. That he avoids all errors of judgment which are due to stupidity would not be worth mentioning were it not that men of repute, and some-

times men of great ability, have exhibited an amount of dulness in their literary judgments which, were it not well recorded, would appear almost incredible. Take, for example, Mr. Elwin, whose offences as an annotator of Pope receive well-deserved chastisement from Mr. Stephen. Here is a man of some name who has studied day and night the wittiest of English satirists, and the result of his efforts is simply to show that he does not understand the simplest canons of sound criticism, and that the most intimate study of Pope's wit will leave a dull man as dull as nature made him. Or take Mr. Darley. He is not, as far as we know, a person of more than average stupidity, but he has discovered that the sentiment, "An honest man is the noblest work of God," is "false and degrading to man, derogatory to God"; and supports the silly issue by the illogical argument that "an honest man who is also a wise man must be a nobler work than a person who has no merit but honesty." That Pope should be misunderstood by dullards is not surprising. What does excite astonishment is that men like Charles James Fox and De Quincey should have stumbled over such lines as those which conclude the attack on Addison. De Quincey censures them on the ground that the same phenomenon is supposed to make you laugh in one line and weep in the other, and that, therefore, the thought is inaccurate, "as if," to quote Mr. Stephen's words, "it would not be a fit cause for tears to discover that one of our national idols was a fitting subject for laughter."

The critical errors of really clever men are in most cases due to what is the most subtle and the most dangerous failing of critics—the desire rather to display their own acuteness than to elucidate their author. This is the defect which mars the whole school of which Mr. Matthew Arnold is the chief. No one can say that he himself, whatever may be asserted of his disciples, is deficient either in discernment or power of expression. But whether the subject of his patronizing appreciation be Pope or St. Paul, or the "tendency which makes for righteousness," he never allows his readers to forget for a moment the cleverness of the critic in the importance of the subject. From this defect Mr. Stephen is entirely exempt. He can express himself with great neatness and with singular vigor. One often feels that he deals with a question so as to settle it once for all; as, for example, when he summarily disposes of Mr. Elwin's absurd assertion that Pope's 'Essay on Criticism,' written when he was about twenty-three, was "below his years." But though Mr. Stephen can express himself with terseness and vigor, one does not for a moment feel that his object is to parade his own acuteness or to sum up the complicated characteristics of great authors in some happy expression which may be a permanent monument of his own cleverness. This merit will detract from his influence with a certain class of students. Many persons desire nothing so much as to be provided with a short formula which sums up the merits or defects of an author, which it is easy to remember and equally easy to repeat. To such readers it is everything to learn that Pope writes "in the grand style," that De Foe is "a Philistine," or that some third writer is deficient in "intelligence." Such formulas give to those who adopt them the appearance of acuteness, whilst saving them the trouble of thought. Mr. Stephen does not provide any such short critical dogmas. He thinks honestly himself, and stirs up those who read him to think for themselves. This gives the permanent value to his work. No one reader will probably agree with the whole of Mr. Stephen's criticisms. To some he will seem to have overrated Pope and to have underrated Scott; others may doubt whether justice has been done to Balzac's insight into character; but disagreement with Mr. Stephen's conclusions does not diminish the interest of his essays. No one should read them for the sake of dogmatic instruction. They should be studied in the same spirit in which you listen to the conversation of an intelligent and well-instructed gentleman. You do not expect to agree with every word he utters, but you expect that what he says will be worth hearing, and that you will learn a good deal by a comparison of the points in which you disagree.

This is, at any rate, exactly the result of reading 'Hours in a Library.' A person must be either extremely clever or extremely stupid who does not learn much from Mr. Stephen's pages. His estimate of Pope, for instance, is one of the best and fairest we have ever read. Pope's weak points, both as a man and as an author, are fully admitted, but Pope's permanent merits are brought into a clear light; and no sensible man can, after reading the two essays on the greatest of English satirists, doubt either that his fame is fully deserved or that it will last as long as the English language. The chapter on Scott will naturally excite some difference of opinion, for, as Mr. Stephen points out, Scott's reputation is at the present moment passing through a stage which is very trying to the fame of all authors. He has ceased to be a writer of the day. His style and his thoughts have lost the charm of novelty. The temporary circumstances which gave him an artificial success have passed away. His works, on the other hand, have not yet taken the place of classics. Scott has therefore at the present moment neither the ad-

vantages of George Eliot or Trollope, who, in quite different ways, meet exactly the spirit of their time; nor has he the advantages of Fielding or Richardson, who are admired, for the most part, simply because they have established a prescribed right to admiration. With Scott the question is, whether he will or will not take rank as a classic. Time alone can decisively answer this enquiry. "When naturalists," writes Mr. Stephen, "wish to preserve a skeleton, they bury an animal in an ant-hill, and dig him up after many days with all the perishable matter fairly eaten away. That is the process great men have to undergo. A vast multitude of insignificant, unknown, and unconscious critics destroy what has no genuine power of resistance, and leave the remainder for posterity. Much disappears in every case, and it is a question whether the firmer parts of Scott's reputation will be sufficiently coherent to exist after the removal of the rubbish." Mr. Stephen's opinion obviously is that part of Scott's work, though a small part, will survive the test of time. It may be so, but we confess to a suspicion that in future centuries Scott's genius will be acknowledged by students principally because of the effect his writings have indubitably produced on the current of European feeling, but that when the tide of sentiment which still runs strong in favor of mediævalism has turned, and the world has recovered from the illusion that light and truth are to be found in the darkness and ignorance of the Middle Ages, Scott's novels will be little read by generations who have ceased to think a hero interesting because he is dressed in armor, or conversations witty because they are carried on in broad Scotch.

Of the 'Hours in a Library' those are certainly the best which are spent with our older English authors. The remark, for example, that in De Foe's time writers were scarcely able to draw accurately the line between fiction and falsehood is original, and throws light on some of the peculiarities both of De Foe and of Richardson. The account, again, of the source of Richardson's influence is well worth consideration by any one who wishes to understand the spirit of the eighteenth century.

Politics for Young Americans. By Charles Nordhoff. (New York: Harper Bros. 1875.)—The object of this little work, as stated in Mr. Nordhoff's preface, is "to explain in simple language, and by familiar illustrations fitted for the comprehension of boys and girls, the meaning and limits of liberty, law, and government, and human rights, and thus make intelligible to them the political principles on which our system of government is founded"; and he adds that "the book grew out of an attempt in a few letters to instruct his oldest son in the political knowledge which every American boy ought to possess to fit him for the duties of citizenship." These extracts indicate pretty clearly where to look both for the merits of the work and its defects. As a volume of advice on the leading questions of contemporary politics, addressed by a thoughtful and conscientious father to a bright boy of sixteen or seventeen, who had been already familiarized by the household talk and newspaper reading with political nomenclature and the relations and in some slight degree the history of existing parties, it may be highly commended. It would be difficult to find indeed a safer guide for a young man getting ready to "cast his first ballot," and we say this all the more readily because we are in hearty agreement with nearly all Mr. Nordhoff's political and economical opinions. The chapters on "Property," "Money," "Labor and Capital," the "Usury Laws," "Banks, Banking," and "Currency," "Greenbacks" and "Commerce," "Strikes," "The Malthusian Theory," "Prohibitory Laws," and on economical questions generally, are excellent. It would indeed not be easy to improve on them for the purpose we have named. But they have essentially the characteristic of good editorial articles in a newspaper, in that they assume considerable familiarity already with political questions and political phraseology on the part of the reader.

For these reasons the book would hardly serve the purpose of a school manual. Besides drawing its illustrations too largely and with too much heat from contemporary history both of our own and foreign countries, it contains few accurate definitions—than which nothing is more necessary in an educational work—of such much-used terms as "rights," "duty," "people," "law," "government," "republic," and so on, which are constantly used by the same person in widely different senses, and loose thinking about which causes so much foolish writing, speaking, and legislating. For instance, when Mr. Nordhoff holds up Mr. Blaine and Mr. Dawes (p. 63) as good specimens of legislators, he places his readers under the disagreeable necessity of explaining to their children that Mr. Dawes, during the past fall, made many speeches in an endeavor to induce an American constituency to elect General Butler to Congress, and that General Butler is one of the greatest rascals in the country—a liar, a cheat, and a demagogue. It is, therefore, not safe to use living men as illustrations at all, at least in the political field. Then, again, when Mr. Nordhoff describes "government" as a "necessary

evil," he uses a term which is rather a good epigram than a good definition, and calculated to mislead a young person. One might say with as much truth that civilization itself is a necessary evil, inasmuch as it consists of a series of laborious and often painful efforts to win comfort and security from stern and remorseless nature. Besides, government is only in part a means of repressing men's bad tendencies or guarding against the consequences of their folly. It is also an instrument of co-operation, as when it levies taxes to build a bridge or pave the streets; and it is an instrument for deciding things in which there is neither right nor wrong, darkness nor light, but about which some general agreement is necessary to the proper transaction of the business of life. For instance, the rule of the road which requires us to pass to the right in driving settles no moral question, and is no better than a rule requiring us to go to the left; but it establishes a consensus which promotes the general safety and welfare. Any one can multiply such illustrations for himself. The only other objection we can make to Mr. Nordhoff's book is that, as was natural for a father instructing his son, it treats as finally settled and beyond dispute a good many questions which the boy on going out into the world will find still under fierce debate. A boy who has obtained his political education from his father may be able to resist successfully the surprise of this discovery, but one who learns from the book might not be so happy. Educational books on politics ought therefore, as far as possible, to confine themselves to the inculcation of fundamental principles, and to the training of the boy to reason for himself from these over the wide range of topics with which he will find himself brought face to face when he comes to vote. It is only in pure science that it is quite safe in our day to teach a child by sheer force of authority. In matters not so well settled, dogmatic instruction often contains the seeds of subsequent reaction or revolt. Nothing is commoner than to meet with men who are rationalists largely because they were brought up rigidly orthodox at home, protectionists because they were vehemently made to be free-traders in their boyhood, and so on. In short, the best training for politics, as for most other things that one can give a boy, is to teach him not so much *what* to think as *how* to think, and above all to think accurately and closely.

Honest John Vane. A Story. By J. W. De Forest, author of 'Kate Beaumont,' 'The Wetherel Affair,' etc. (New Haven: Richmond & Patten. 1875.)—Mr. De Forest, who has written several entertaining novels, offers us in this volume a political satire. His tale was published more than a year ago, we believe, in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and he has judged it worthy after this considerable interval of being resuscitated. Mr. De Forest is capable of writing a story which holds the attention, but we should not have said, from our acquaintance with his works, that he possessed the cunning hand of a satirist. We have heard him called an American Charles Reade, and, *mutatis mutandis*, the analogy might stand. We know that when Mr. Charles Reade shows up a public abuse, his irony does not suffer from being drawn too fine, nor his moral go a-begging for want of being vigorously pointed. Mr. De Forest's colors are laid on not exactly with a camel's-hair pencil, and he has the drawback of pleading for political purity in a phraseology which is decidedly turbid. "The lobby proved to be every way more imposing and potent than he had imagined it. True, some of its representatives were men whom it was easy for him to subdue—men of unwholesome skins, greasy garments, brutish manners, filthy minds, and sickening conversation; men who so reeked and drizzled with henbane tobacco and cockatrice whiskey that a moderate drinker or sucker would recoil from them as from a cesspool; men whose stupid, shameless boastings of their trickeries were enough to warn away from them all but the very elect of Satan." This is painting black black with a good will, and the most heedless reader will know whither he is being led. His hero's "pulpy pink face," the author tells us, when the wages of sin seem falling due for this recreant functionary, "wore an air of abiding perplexity which rivaled that of his Dundrearyish friend Irenman. At times it seemed as if its large watery features would decompose entirely with irresolution, and come to resemble a strawberry-ice which has been exposed to too high a temperature." The work contains an unclean and unscrupulous lobbyist, Darius Dorman by name, of whom it is told us, in like manner, that he "started up and paced the room briskly for some seconds, meanwhile tightly grasping his dried-up blackened claws across his coat-skirts, perhaps to keep his long tail from wagging too conspicuously inside his trousers—that is, supposing he possessed such an earthly embellishment." The author's touch, in this and similar cases, has more energy than delicacy, and even the energy aims rather wildly. Did Mr. De Forest refresh his memory of Swift before writing the adventures of John Vane? He would have been reminded that though that great master of political satire is often coarse and ferocious, he is still oftener keenly ingenious.

'Honest John Vane,' however, may pass as a tract for popular distri-

bution, and the important thing with tracts is that they be printed in big letters and be adapted for a plain man's comprehension. Mr. De Forest's cause is so good and his temper apparently so fervid that, as matters stand with us, it will be no harm if they make their way even at the cost of a good deal of loose writing and coarse imagery. The work records the career of a (presumably) Republican Representative in Congress from the town of Slowburgh, and traces his progress from primitive integrity to corruption inevitable for an irresponsible barbarian. As a portrait of one of our average "self-made men" and usual legislators, the picture has a good deal of force, and will renew the familiar blush in the cheek of the contemplative citizen of this unwieldy Republic. John Vane, who has begun life as a country joiner, and risen to local eminence as a manufacturer of refrigerators, is a large, bland, cautious, and unsophisticated personage, whose benevolent visage and pastoral simplicity have earned him his honorable sobriquet. His intellectual culture is limited to the arts of writing and ciphering, but he is a promising national legislator, from the caucus point of view, and his election to Congress is triumphantly carried. He marries the showy and belated daughter of the mistress of a students' boarding-house, and repairs to Washington to breast the mingled political and social tide. Of how little use to him, under direct pressure, his uninstructed, mechanical, empirical probity turns out to be, and of how he goes into the great Sub-Fluvial Tunnel swindle and becomes shrewder in his turpitude than he ever was in his virtue, the volume offers a sufficiently lively recital. The most arid stroke it contains is the history of his successful hocus-pocussing of the committee of investigation, and his ignobly triumphant evasion of disgrace. Mr. De Forest did well not to sacrifice to the vulgar need for a dénouement, but to leave his hero's subsequent career to the irritated conscience of the reader. He is a national legislator at this hour, with his precious outfit and his still more precious experience, and of this interesting circumstance the tale is a pertinent reminder. Otherwise, there is little "story" in the book; the dramatic element expires before it has really tried its paces, and the narrative becomes chargeable with a certain flatness. Several characteristic political types are sketched, coarsely from the artistic point of view, but wholesomely, it may appear, from the moral. In Darius Dorman, the "smutty" wire-puller, as Mr. De Forest is fond of calling him, the author has tried his hand at the grotesque and fantastic; but if he recalls Hawthorne, it is not altogether to his own advantage. We might repeat, however, that, *par le temps qui court*, his flag should be suffered to cover his cargo, if it were not for some such final reflection as this. Whether accidentally or intentionally we hardly know, 'Honest John Vane' exhales a penetrating aroma of what in plain English one must call vulgarity. Every note the author strikes reverberates with a peculiarly vulgar tone; vulgarity pervades the suggestions, the atmosphere of his volume. This result has doubtless been in a great measure designed; he has wished to overwhelm the reader with the evil odor of lobbyism. But the reader, duly overwhelmed, and laying down the volume with a sense of having been in irredeemably low company, may be excused for wondering whether, if this were a logical symbol of American civilization, it would not be well to let that phenomenon be submerged in the tide of corruption.

The Maintenance of Health: A Medical Work for Lay Readers. By J. M. Fothergill, M.D., London. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1874. Pp. 400.)—The character of this work is indicated in the preface. "It is not a family practice of medicine, but aims at the inculcation of those principles which ought to guide us in our search for health." The first three chapters, after the introduction, are devoted to the hygienic requirements of man during youth, maturity, and advanced age. These special or "epochal" hygienes might, perhaps, have been better placed after the general hygiene which is here made to follow them. But their separate presentation constitutes a novel and useful feature, and the references in a subsequent chapter to the effects of occupations on health suggest that in works of this kind distinct sections might well be devoted to the hygiene of certain employments; or, still better, separate works might be prepared to meet the peculiar needs of the soldier and sailor, the miner, the artisan, and the farmer. This would make the information more directly available, and at a much less expense than is now involved—a matter of some consequence, since, as a rule, the classes most exposed to unhealthy influences are those least likely to acquire physiological knowledge in the course of general education, and also least able to pay for high-priced works upon the subject.

Chapter V. discusses Food and Clothes; Chapter VI., Stimulants; and Chapter VII., The Effects of Inheritance. The three following treat of the Election of a Pursuit, Overwork and Physical Bankruptcy, and Mental Strain. Then comes a very long and rather heterogeneous chapter upon General Hygiene, which, as already suggested, might better have come earlier in the work, but which is nevertheless the most compact summary of the sub-

ject which we have ever seen. On the other hand, the succeeding very brief chapter upon What to do in Certain Emergencies, though it contains some judicious remarks upon the direct and indirect effects of railway accidents, should, we think, either have been much extended or wholly omitted, with a reference to such excellent little manuals as Hope's 'Till the Doctor Comes.'

Positive errors in Dr. Fothergill's work are very few. We note only the denial of any oxygen in fat, and the statement, by implication at least, that the conversion of starch into glucose is accomplished only by salivary. In his zeal for the prevention of tubercle, our author seems to us somewhat to exaggerate the necessity of eating fat. To many persons fat is positively repulsive, and more stress might have been placed upon the fact that cream and butter are perfect substitutes; that milk, if used as a beverage, will supply a large amount of fat; and that, among Americans at least, there is a general tendency to use too much fat, especially in cooking. It may be that the hard-working farmer and laborer cannot get his respiratory food in any other way; but the majority of our people would improve in health and mental power if they would banish lard and suet from their kitchens. And if a part of the money now spent for the liquor required to aid the digestion of such gross matter were devoted to the purchase of the more refined but expensive substitutes for fat—milk, cream, butter, and olive-oil—another American vice might be diminished.

Our author's opinion upon the use of stimulants, especially alcoholic, is essentially that which is now entertained by nearly all scientific men. Acknowledging that "the whole subject is a complex problem not to be rashly solved, and that the complete evidence is not yet before us" (p. 166), he says (p. 164) that "we know numerous instances of high moral worth, unimpeachable integrity, and unimpaired health in men who have taken alcohol more or less from their youth upward. How does all this contrast with the hasty assumption, often so freely launched, that alcohol is a poison? Rash statements, arguments radically weak, urged with a pertinacity and intolerance in inverse proportion to their intrinsic weight, have done much to retard the cause of the abstainers. They have shown incontestably that the abuse of alcohol is one of the most terrible curses with which the earth is smitten. But we may well pause ere rushing to the conviction that therefore it is a poison, and never useful or even harmless." As a "moral anæsthetic," Dr. Fothergill earnestly deprecates the use of alcoholics, believing that when thus taken, "to make existence endurable, there is little hope of amendment." With regard to the milder stimulants which are "non-intoxicant," he remarks (p. 173) that "the habit of taking a cup or two of tea instead of more food, in order to enable the individual to take so much more out of herself, is as common among women as the use of alcohol for similar ends is among men. . . . It is painful to have to acknowledge that where the so-called temperance movement has spread, the use of other stimulants than alcohol has marched along with it step by step. In Maine and Massachusetts, the consumption of opium is terribly on the increase [he ought to give his authorities for the statement], and amidst the followers of Father Mathew the practice of drinking ether obtains." As to tobacco and its precise effects our author, "although a smoker, has little more to say" than that "in moderation, with adults, it exercises no injurious effects and neither lessens appetite nor encourages drinking" (p. 176). But he adds that there is no question about its deleterious action upon boys and youth.

The chapter on "The Effects of Inheritance" treats a confessedly difficult and delicate subject in a very plain and straightforward way. The importance which our author attaches to sexual physiology is further shown by the frequent allusions to various branches of the subject throughout the work. Still, the space given to it, although more than is generally allowed in popular works, is so small in comparison with its absolute importance to the individual and the community, that one is all the more impressed with the truth of the remark that "there is only one direction in which unalloyed good can be looked for, namely, *more general knowledge upon the subject*." An excellent feature of the work is the appending to each chapter of a series of "Propositions," briefly stating the facts and conclusions therein presented. Indeed, these propositions, with some additions and changes, would form an excellent little pocket manual of hygiene. It is singular that in a treatise of this character we should have to lament the want of an index.

A History of the Character and Achievements of the so-called Christopher Columbus. By Aaron Goodrich. With numerous illustrations and an Appendix. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 403.)—One is tempted to ask on glancing at this book, What has Columbus, or any one of his descendants, done to Mr. Goodrich, or any of his ancestors, that has inspired so intense an animosity? It does not read like the dispassionate discussion of an historical question relating to a far-distant epoch, but the

angry remonstrance of one who has been personally wronged. The discoverer's very name is a grievance to him, and he will have it that his rightful appellation was Nicolo Griego. No charge is too monstrous to urge against his memory; no language too strong to describe him. Perhaps the following brief paragraph relating to the rebellion of Roldan will be a sufficient, as it is a fair specimen of the style of the book: "The particulars of this rebellion form one of the most disgraceful pages in the history of Columbus; it illustrates alike his treachery, cowardice, and inability to rule, save by the grossest tyranny" (p. 263). It must not be imagined, however, that this list exhausts the evil qualities ascribed to this unfortunate man; for such a list, one must go to works on moral philosophy.

It would be too much to say that no plausible charges are advanced. The facts are perhaps presented in such a way as to afford a presumption of guilt in many cases; but the whole is urged with such heat, and there is such an absence of just criticism and fair reasoning, and the references and citations are so incomplete, that it is impossible to say what is proved, or even what is made probable. For the matter of that, we do not need at the present day to be told that Columbus was no saint, and, on the other hand, we cannot make out that Mr. Goodrich has proved him to be a double-dyed villain. He admits that he existed, and commanded the expedition which discovered America, and here we are content to let the matter rest for the present. There is a little poem of Clough's in which Columbus's sufficient title to the admiration of mankind is well set forth:

"How in Heaven's name did Columbus get over,
Is a pure wonder to me, I protest.

What if wise men had, as far back as Ptolemy,
Judged that the earth, like an orange, was round?
None of them ever said, 'Come along, follow me,
Sail to the West, and the East will be found.'

Many a day before
Ever they'd come ashore,
Sadder and wiser men
They'd have turn'd back again;
And that he did not, but did cross the sea,
Is a pure wonder, I must say, to me."

Whoever undertakes to determine just the degree of credit to which Columbus is entitled must, among other things, present a distinct and accurate view of the state of science in his day. In place of this, Mr. Goodrich has filled his introductory chapters with an ill-digested sort of matter relating to Babylon, Egypt, Central American remains, and a number of other things which are equally irrelevant to the subject of his book. Even the interesting chapter upon the discoveries of the Northmen has no very evident bearing upon his argument. The illustrations are many of them curious and interesting; others quite worthless; none more curious, perhaps, than the numerous portraits of Columbus, differing as widely from one another as possible—a better argument, it would seem, for Mr. Goodrich's view than pages of his diatribes. We ought not to neglect to add that, next to Columbus himself, Queen Isabella is the object of the author's most vehement hatred, and that he extols Vespucci as vigorously as he defames his rival.

Singers and Songs of the Liberal Faith: Being Selections of Hymns and other Sacred Poems of the Liberal Church in America, with Biographical Sketches of the Writers, and with Historical and Illustrative Notes. By Alfred P. Putnam. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1875. 8vo, pp. xxiii., 556.)—Poetry is happily not confined to any one sect in the Church universal, and the Rev. Mr. Putnam has shown in this volume how widely diffused, if not the

genius of poetry, at least the art of hymn-writing has been among the leaders of the Unitarian denomination in America. He gives us between five and six hundred hymns and sacred poems, the production of seventy-three writers. In such a work critical discrimination is not so much to be desired, or expected, as a genial spirit sympathetic with the moral and religious sentiment which it is the object of the writers of hymns to express and to arouse. And in this respect Mr. Putnam is excellently qualified for his task. The lovers of song and poetry, for mere poetry's sake, will not turn to these pages for frequent delight. The conditions under which devotional verse is written are not favorable for the free exercise of the imagination. But readers who are fond of hymns, and who are interested to know how some of the best reputed and most devout men and women of our time have expressed their religious emotions and aspirations, will find here ample satisfaction in the utterances of sincere, if not always inspired faith. There is naturally in such a generous collection a great difference to be observed in the quality and merit of separate pieces; but it is, perhaps, characteristic of the denomination from which these hymns proceed, that the level of excellence in its kind is high, and that the forms of composition and of thought give evidence of culture and refinement. And it is not less characteristic that with much earnestness there is but little of such fervor as sometimes discovers itself in the intense lines of a medieval Latin hymn, or of such mystical ardor as now and then burns in the verse of Wesley and his followers.

Mr. Putnam's notices of the different writers, though brief, are comprehensive enough to afford all needed information concerning the outward conditions of their lives, and will be, doubtless, of much interest to the readers of the volume. It would have been better to be less lavish in terms of praise and more discriminating in their application. Certainly living writers would prefer, if they possess proper modesty, to have the enumeration of their virtues postponed till the customary occasion for eulogy. Mr. Putnam's over-estimates are not always merely those of an amiable disposition. For instance, it is an error to speak of Mr. Alger's respectable book on the 'Doctrine of a Future Life' as "unquestionably the most learned and elaborate theological work ever produced in this country"; and it is a misuse of terms to speak of Mr. Bryant "as possessing an imagination of marvellous sweep and power."

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 28, 1874.

THE occurrence of two holidays so close together has created a tendency towards greater ease in the money market for call loans, which we quote as ranging between 3 and 4 per cent., with the bulk of business doing at 3½ per cent. The market for commercial paper has been rather sluggish, as is usual just before the new year, and rates are rather lower, prime paper being quoted at 5½ to 6 per cent.

Cable advices report no change in the Bank of England rate of discount, which remains standing at 6 per cent. The Bank gained £187,000 in bullion for the week ending on Thursday last. The Bank of France continues to gain in specie—the gain last week amounting to 1,179,000 francs.

The bank statement on Saturday was another enigma to the Street—an unaccountably small decrease in the specie line being shown. The banks lost in total reserve \$990,700, and now hold \$7,088,100 in excess of the legal requirement.

The following is the statement in detail:

	Dec. 19.	Dec. 26.	Differences.
Loans	\$285,409,800	\$288,665,300	Dec. \$1,744,500
Specie	13,619,500	13,397,100	Dec. 222,400
Legal tenders	47,931,700	47,163,400	Dec. 768,300
Deposits	215,707,900	218,889,600	Dec. 1,818,200
Circulation	24,731,600	24,610,100	Dec. 121,500

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Dec. 19.	Dec. 26.	Differences.
Specie	\$13,619,500	\$13,397,100	Dec. \$222,400
Legal tenders	47,931,700	47,163,400	Dec. 768,300
Total re-reserve	\$61,551,200	\$60,560,500	Dec. \$990,700
Reserve required against deposits	53,926,950	53,472,400	
Excess of reserve above legal requirement	7,624,250	7,088,100	Dec. 536,150

The stock market was firm and prices well maintained during the early part of the week. Later the market became weak, and prices on the more speculative shares declined, partly in sympathy with the rapid drop in Wabash, against which a most determined attack was made by the bears, with the effect of carrying the price to-day down below 20. Western Union, Northwestern, and Pacific Mail were very weak, and up to this writing have recovered but a part of the decline of the past few days. The

dividend-paying stocks were but slightly affected by the weakness in the speculative list. The question of a dividend on Lake Shore has agitated the Street. A meeting of directors will be held to-morrow to settle the matter. Meantime, the price of the stock has advanced to 80 and above, and seems disposed to remain there until the question of the dividend has been decided. The following are the extreme prices of stocks during the week ending on Saturday: Northwestern 60½, 58; Rock Island 101½, 100½; Delaware, Lackawanna and Western 109½, 108½; Erie 27½, 26½; Lake Shore 81, 78½; Michigan Central 82½, 80; Milwaukee and St. Paul 37½, 35½; New York Central 101, 100½; Ohio and Michigan 31½, 29½; Pacific Mail 37½, 33½; Wabash 24½, 22½; Union Pacific 35½, 33½; Western Union 81½, 78½, ex. dividend.

Government bonds have been in sharp demand, and prices have advanced a full 1½ per cent. on the different January and July 6 per cent. bonds. The only large sellers are the foreign bankers, but the supply derived from that source is insufficient to meet the demands from home investors, which comprise not only the insurance companies and banks, but a large number of persons who prefer to invest their money temporarily in Governments, upon which they can realize promptly, until they see an opportunity to place it in other ways. The following are the closing quotations to-night:

	Bld.	Asked.		Bld.	Asked.
U. S. Currency 6's	117½	118	Coupon 5-20's, 1865	120½	121
Coupon 6's, 1861	121½	122	Coupon 5-20's, 1867	121½	122
Coupon 5-20's, 1862	114½	114½	Coupon 5-20's, 1868	121½	122
Coupon 5-20's, 1864	116	116½	Coupon 10-40's, 1864	114½	115
Coupon 5-20's, 1865	118	118½	Coupon 5's, 1881	113½	113½

Railroad bonds are strong and higher. New York Central firsts sold to-day at 114; New York Central 1st Consolidated, recently placed upon the Stock Exchange, at 102½; C. B. and Q. 7 per cent. Consolidated at 105½, having been quoted in the market only since Saturday. Union Pacific mortgages and also those of the Central Pacific are in demand at higher quotations, and sell freely at every call at gradual increasing prices. The demand for bonds after the first of January from investors is likely to carry prices of the better issues to considerably higher prices.

The gold quotations have been confined between 111½, which was the opening price on Monday, and 112½. The specie shipments during the week amounted to \$2,257,000, principally in gold coin.

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ERRATA.

Page 224, column 1, line 4 of sonnet. For "count" read "count."	
Page 216, column 2, line 29 from bottom. For "in" read "on."	
Page 216, column 2, line 25 from bottom. In "set" not "before" "responsible."	
Page 315, column 1, line 20 from bottom. For "elements" read "materials."	
Page 363, column 1, line 1. For "and" read "in a." Column 2, line 32 from bottom. For "Memoirs" read "Memories."	
Page 369, column 2, line 14. For "philosophical" read "philological."	

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